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ABSTRACT

In this report, teacher educators scrutinize the relationships between the standards and assessment movement in education and the United States' increasingly multicultural population. The papers include: "Foreword" (Jacqueline Jordan Irvine); (1) "Diversity and Standards: Defining the Issues" (Norvella P. Carter); (2) "Accountability and Assessment in Teacher Education" (Boyce C. Williams and Jerrie Cobb Scott); (3) "Preservice Teacher Preparation: Challenges of Diversity in NCATE Accreditation" (Gwendolyn Trotter and Cristina Rios); (4) "Examining INTASC Standards through the Lens of Multicultural Education: Meeting the Needs of Underserved Students" (Norvella P. Carter and Patricia J. Larke); (5) "Diverse Practitioners and Diverse Student Populations: Opportunities and Challenges in the Alignment of National Standards" (Deneese L. Jones); (6) "Diversity and NBPTS Certification: Higher Education and State Initiatives" (Nita A. Paris, Gail Sherer, and Yiping Wan); (7) "Compatibility of National Standards for Diversity with P-12 Standards" (Fannye E. Love and Bobbie C. Smothers); (8) "The Role of State Standards: Compounding, Confounding, or Contributing to Diversity?" (Beverly L. Downing and Sylvia A. Mason); and (9) "Making It Work: Conclusions Regarding Diversity as a Unifying Theme in Standards, Assessments, and Accountability" (Mary Hatwood Futrell and Joel Gomez). (Papers contain references.) (SM)

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Norvella Carter, Editor

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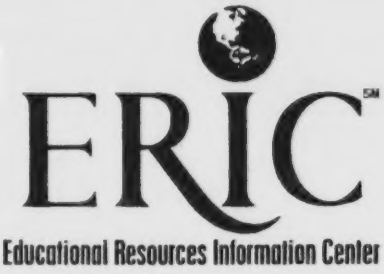

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FOREWORD

Jacqueline Jordan Irvine, Emory University

Primarily through its Committee on Multicultural Education, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) has consistently placed issues of diversity and multiculturalism as a priority on its agenda. The objectives of this standing committee are to examine policy and other issues related to the maintenance of equity in teacher education, collaborate with other national organizations working to improve educational equity as it relates to teacher education, advise equity-related grant projects, and identify programs and procedures useful to member institutions in the development of culturally responsive curricula and programs.

During my tenure as chair of AACTE's Committee on Multicultural Education (1996-1998), we decided early to focus our attention on issues of standards, assessment, and diversity, particularly as presented in the then newly established National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) and the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC). Specifically, the committee identified the following questions and issues for deliberation:

- How do the assessments measure effectiveness across different contexts and settings?
- What psychometric strategies are used to detect bias?
- How does the research on social and cultural context of teaching and learning inform the development of these assessments?
- In addition to legal and psychometric implications of adverse impact, what are other concerns about bias?
- What are the instruments in these assessments designed to measure?
- How are important student outcome issues, like achievement for all children, addressed in the standards and assessment?
- How will these standards influence teacher education?
- Will these assessments hinder efforts to increase student and faculty diversity?

The committee's work was informed by lengthy discussions with leading authorities in the field, such as Lloyd Bond, formerly a consultant with NBPTS; Linda Darling-Hammond of Stanford University; and Mari Pearlman and Karen Price of the Educational Testing Service. In addition, we received valuable input and cooperation from AACTE committee chairs regarding standards and assessment issues, most notably from

the committees on governmental relations, accreditation, global and international teacher education, issues and resolutions, professional development, women's issues, and research and information. In addition, presentations and updates of our committee's work were presented at AACTE national conferences and the National Alliance for Black School Educators. To further inform the teacher education community of its work, editorials and essays about the issue of standards, assessment, and equity were published in *Education Week* and AACTE *Briefs*.

This impressive volume is a culmination of the multicultural education committee's accomplishments on this topic and represents current thinking on the state of standards and assessments as they relate to issues of diversity. The authors of this notable volume have tackled some very important and challenging issues in teacher education. The importance of standards and accountability in kindergarten through 12th grade and higher education are acknowledged and supported in these chapters. The writers also posit many convincing arguments that reveal the complexity of standards and assessment in the vastly changing multicultural society in which we now live. For example, the authors push our thinking on the significance of standards for teachers who work in schools in low-income or poorly resourced areas and/or serve a diverse student population that is also poor or includes non-English speakers. Questions are raised in this manuscript about the impact of accountability standards on the decreasing number of teachers of color in our schools. Important points are presented concerning institutional contexts; federal, state, and local initiatives; and the underlying assumptions that guide our understanding of how standards are defined and whom they ultimately serve.

The power and significance of this volume, however, is that it provides a framework and plan for positive action in which a multicultural educational environment and high academic standards are not seen as conflicting and incompatible goals. Professional organizations like AACTE that focus on matters of teacher education and accreditation should work cooperatively and aggressively to ensure that the standards movement is not operationalized as a single and narrow focus on the testing of students and their teachers. More important, as Trotter and Rios remind us in chapter 3, accountability with a sense of moral responsibility is required if we are serious about providing the best education for all children regardless of income, ethnicity, or circumstances of birth.

1

DIVERSITY AND STANDARDS: DEFINING THE ISSUES

Norvella P. Carter, Texas A&M University

The past few decades have seen a great deal of publicity about American society's phenomenal racial and cultural transformation (Banks & Banks, 2001; Thornton, 1995). Loud pronouncements have been made about immigration laws, birthrates, and other factors that have contributed to a dramatic increase in the number of people of color in the United States. Demographic data confirm that students of color represent 70% of the student population in 20 of the largest school districts and that within the next 2 decades, more than 40% of our nation's children, prekindergarten through Grade 12 (P-12), will be students of color (Irvine & Armento, 2001).

Although the number of racial and cultural groups has increased in our nation, diversity is not new. This nation was built by a diverse group of people, and we grapple with some of the same issues of equity that we dealt with a century ago (Grant, 1995). As numbers of people increase from a variety of cultures, ethnicities, linguistic backgrounds, and socioeconomic income levels, failure in school, particularly among African American, Hispanic, and Native American students, continues to be an issue that is well documented (Delpit, 1995; Nieto, 2000; Pang, 2001). The purpose of this chapter is to define some of the issues surrounding diversity and standards and to frame theoretical and practical issues discussed by the contributors of succeeding chapters.

The Standards Movement

The *American Heritage Dictionary* defines *standard* as "a flag to rally around, a banner, an acknowledged measure of comparison . . . a degree or level of requirement or attainment . . . of average or acceptable quality . . . commonly used and accepted as an authority . . . ." It is interesting that the adjective *standard* is defined as average or acceptable in the dictionary, while many people associate the noun *standard* with excellence (see chapter 5). As you read this book, you will see every instance (some implicit, some explicit) of these definitions used when referring to standards.

Much of the current literature seems to imply that the standards movement was greatly influenced by *A Nation at Risk*, a report published by the National Commission on Excellence in Education in 1983. The report concluded that education in the United States was unacceptably weak and identified one of the primary causes as low standards. The report itself was and continues to be a "manifestation [of the] tensions and issues in society and education that have frequently surfaced in moves toward reform and change throughout this century" (Brown, 1992, p. 2). The report simply served as a catalyst for another discourse on diversity, standards, assessment, and school reform.

One of the significant issues that emerged from the commission's report was the questioning of our national ability to compete globally, which led educators, business leaders, and political figures to revisit concerns about high-quality teaching and student achievement. For the first time since the civil rights movement of the 1960s, educators and political leaders in state after state began some type of reform effort to improve schools (Ginsberg & Berry, 1990).

Universities, colleges, states, and school districts were quick to respond to the "standard-setting recommendations" of the report, prompting the development of multiple levels of standards that were unprecedented in this country. In 1996, 14 states established standards in core academic subjects; by 2000, 49 states had followed the same path (Miner, 2000). The proliferation of local, state, and national standards and the reports and criticisms surrounding them led to the 1990s being called the decade of the standards movement (Wise & Leibbrand, 2001).

For some, the idea of promoting reform through the setting of standards for teacher preparation, school improvement, and student achievement is accepted and widespread (Darling-Hammond, 1994; Sykes & Plastrik, 1993). It is through the standards movement that government officials, politicians, and nearly every professional organization have joined the rhetoric of reforming education.

Although some see standards as vital for reform and improvement of schools, there is a growing movement against the use of standards as a school reform tool (Apple, 2001; Hilliard, 2000a; McNeil, 2000). For opponents, "high standards" are not themselves a problem; rather, skeptics fear manipulation of standards for political, financial, personal, or social gain. In addition, the difficulty of being held responsible for meeting a standard without sufficient resources to accomplish the task is a recurring argument against the standards movement (Carr, 1997; Cohen, 1995; Hilliard, 2000b; Ladson-Billings, 1994).

The interaction among diversity, standards, and assessment continues to be intricately interwoven, because a disproportionate number of students from ethnically, culturally, linguistically, and economically diverse backgrounds are experiencing failure in American schools (Irvine & Armento, 2001; Louis & Versloot, 1996). Again, this occurrence is not new, but it has been the plight of children of color since the inception of our educational system. The political promise of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 is a sharp reminder that our educational system has not been able to raise the achievement level of many children, particularly poor and minority children. Does the standards movement obfuscate or contribute to the improvement of student achievement, especially for children who have been "left behind"? This question is the basis for considerable debate.

Legal Antecedents

In a real way, official national standards as they relate to education have been established for more than a century by the U.S. Supreme Court in its landmark decisions. A number of these legal decisions have had far-reaching ramifications and have established a climate for education in our nation. Milestone legal cases such as *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), *Lau v. Nichols* (1974), and *Plyler v. Doe* (1982) reflect the nature of diversity issues and the educational plight of children of color.

The legal decision in *Plessy v. Ferguson* set forth a national standard of "separate but equal" facilities for Whites and African Americans. This ruling solidified the course of education that was rooted in inequality and legalized race-based segregation of people in public facilities, including schools. Supreme Court justices were at a crossroads that could have taken the nation away from or toward the tenets that were established during slavery—and they chose the latter. Ramifications of the *Plessy* decision unfolded over decades to impact areas of public life such as restaurants, theaters, transportation, restrooms, and schools, and inevitably extended to the hearts of the people. Their decision promoted the culture of inequality and justified substandard schooling for children of color. This ruling endured and lingered in the hearts of the people to the extent that the spirit of *Plessy* continued, even when *Brown v. Board of Education* rendered it illegal.

Today, racial issues are not explicitly stated in national, state, and local standards, but developers of standards still wrestle with dilemmas of racism, segregation, and the disparity of school funding and facilities. A

number of questions emerge. Can children of color and poor children in economically struggling schools meet the same standards as White children in affluent schools? Are national standards written as though access to knowledge, funding, and other resources are equal for all students? Standards addressing opportunity to learn, for example, probe the availability of programs, staff, and other resources that schools, districts, and states provide to determine whether students are able to meet challenging content and performance standards (Banks, 1997). Are these standards appropriate? How should standards be determined? If poor districts and states are to be held to the same standards as wealthier ones, who will provide the necessary resources?

In *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), the Supreme Court's decision to reverse *Plessy*'s separate-but-equal law was a milestone. One of many reasons this case is significant lies in its citation of the impossibility of educating African American people in a situation in which "separate meant inherent inequality" (Brown, 1992, p. 4). It was monumental in impact because, as stated in chapter 2 in this volume, *Brown v. Board of Education* set forth the effort to determine how to educate "all children," including those from culturally, linguistically, ethnically, and economically diverse backgrounds. However, the decision that made segregation in public schools illegal did not end segregation or the racism that accompanies it. As a result, another type of segregation commonly known as *de facto segregation* is still being experienced in our schools today. It manifests itself in prejudices and stereotypes that separate people in the midst of schools and communities.

The magnitude of *Brown v. Board of Education* reaches into the standards movement, as evidenced by the language of inclusion and proclamations that all children should be educated at admirable levels. To some, it is an accomplishment that language about diversity is included in some standards. To others, the language of standards is a farce and is not substantiated by serious efforts to meet idealistic goals. For example, it is argued that structures such as tracking maintain segregation in officially integrated schools by preparing White students for honors and Advanced Placement courses while limiting students of color to regular and remedial courses (Oakes, 1993). The issue is "inherent inequality," which can manifest itself in numerous areas such as quality of teachers, curriculum, opportunities to learn, and facilities.

In *Lau v. Nichols* (1974), the U.S. Supreme Court mandated the use of two languages as a medium of instruction for students who do not speak English. This case demonstrated that it was necessary to institute a

legal mandate for equitable treatment of students whose first language is not English. More than 2.4 million school-age children in our nation do not speak English at home (U.S. Census Bureau, 1998). Are some of these students receiving instruction in a language they do not understand? Are students who speak English as a second language meeting the standards set forth for children in public schools? If not, whose standard are they meeting? Will teachers value their language and the experiences they bring to the classroom setting?

In *Plyler v. Doe* (1982), the U.S. Supreme Court guaranteed the rights of children of undocumented immigrants to free public education. This decision forbade local school districts to withhold education from children who were not "legally admitted" into the United States. Based on the decision, denial of an education to the children violates the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment of the Constitution, which provides that no state shall "deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

This decision continues to be challenged by people who do not believe children of undocumented workers should be educated with funds from taxpayers. This challenge brings to light a basic question about who should be educated. Is education for specific children in the nation, or do all children have access to public schools? What should be done if a teacher has a child in his/her classroom that he/she does not believe should be educated? Issues such as these have led to the development of standards that address attitudes and dispositions of teachers. Can standards serve as change agents to transform dispositions of teachers?

This brief review of milestone legal decisions reveals many long-standing issues and reflects the tensions that are still in the forefront as unresolved challenges. Authors of this volume have discerned the necessity of a critical discussion on standards as issues related to diversity take on national priority.

National Issues in Teacher Education

A key issue that has emerged over the past decade for major institutions is the role teacher education programs should play in an assessment-driven accountability movement. Chapter 2 in this volume traces the historical antecedents of teacher education programs' becoming heavily involved in the move for mandatory accountability in the standards movement. It points out that teacher education professionals view themselves as "blamed" for students who experience failure in our schools. The finger-pointing is very inclusive and does not leave parents—or even children—out of the

spotlight. When all the blame has been exhausted, what is the responsibility of teacher education programs for guaranteeing the best education for all students?

National organizations that hold institutions accountable for preparing quality teachers are being scrutinized, because they promote, as a primary goal, the assurance of quality teacher preparation in higher education institutions. The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) has devoted attention to diversity since the 1970s (NCATE, 2000). This organization refers to the importance of teachers' ability to teach "all children" throughout its documents. NCATE, because it accredits more than 500 colleges of teacher education in the United States, is a major player in the teacher education business (see chapter 3). The NCATE 2000 standards' accountability language is clear on diversity targets, but institutions must make meaning of these requirements as they provide evidence that targets are being met. Chapter 3 makes it clear that balancing accountability with responsibility is critical. The key issue is whether NCATE is able and willing to serve as a change agent for the improvement of teacher preparation.

An overall review of the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) standards for beginning teachers reveals another issue. Specifically, do organizations that prepare standards to license new teachers pay attention to influences such as school context and structure? For example, research (Darling-Hammond, 1994; Oakes, 1993; Kozol, 1991) reveals that underfunded schools often revolve around debilitating structures such as poor curriculum and tracking, which are reflected in children's being underserved in their schooling experience. Are the contexts of schooling and structure mentioned in national standards? Are principles written as though access to knowledge, funding, and other resources are equal or unequal for all? How important are beginning teachers' sense of efficacy, culturally responsive pedagogy, and the knowledge of philosophical tenets of multicultural education? Are these factors reflected in standards for beginning teachers? Chapter 4 responds to these and other questions.

While the proportion of children of color is increasing in schools, our nation is experiencing a national teacher shortage (Carter & Larke, 1995). Some estimate that nearly 2 million new teachers will be needed in our nation's schools over the next decade (Kirby, Berends, & Naftel, 1999). Is the standards movement influencing an increase or decrease in the number of teachers of color? What are the opportunities and challenges in the alignment of national standards as related to diverse practitioners and

diverse student populations? Chapter 5 responds to this question, calling for continued research on the impact of standards on the recruitment of diverse educators and the effect of diverse learners in public school systems.

Certainly, professional development for veteran teachers is a key issue that has not been ignored in the standards movement. The entire focus of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) has been the development of standards and assessments for experienced teachers. NBPTS's stated goal is to strengthen the profession through the national certification of teachers. As NBPTS gains national momentum, it has been documented that a disproportionate percentage of African American teachers fail to be certified. At a time when teachers of color are needed most, African American teachers had an overall failure rate of 89% in 1998 (Irvine & Fraser, 1998), and this trend was still identified as a challenge in 2002 (Bond, 2002).

Although NBPTS acknowledges adverse impact, it declares it has "no bias." According to Bond (1998), "an assessment is said to have an adverse impact with respect to a specified population subgroup if the rate at which examinees in that subgroup are certified is substantially below the certification rate of a normative reference group" (p. 244). The definition of adverse impact is not an issue, but various scholars challenge the "no bias" position and cite serious flaws in the certification process (Burroughs, 2001). Some argue that the NBPTS certification process does not recognize culturally responsive pedagogy and teaching practices, resulting in a high failure rate for effective teachers of African American children (Irvine & Fraser, 1998).

Others see NBPTS as a viable system of quality assurance that is being developed for continuing professional development for veteran teachers (Moore, 1999; Wise & Leibbrand, 2001). NBPTS continues to examine its certification process and has ongoing discussions on how the adverse impact issue might be resolved. Chapter 6 in this volume discusses NBPTS scoring procedures as well as equity and diversity issues in the certification process for experienced teachers.

State and Local Issues

Just as national standards have engulfed the country, one of the key elements of reform for states and local school systems has been the development of standards. Those who believe standards ensure quality education promote the benefits of testable results and generalizability between schools and across districts (McNeil, 2000). A number of dilemmas have emerged

as state agencies and school districts engage in "accountability" and the alignment of standards.

The concept of "standardization" is controversial. For decades, some scholars have viewed standardization as extremely narrow, focusing solely on Eurocentric values of what students should learn (Miner, 2000). It is asserted that affluent and middle-class White students have an advantage on tests and appear to be superior students on assessments that are designed in their favor. Those who oppose standardization believe that schools can become committed to minimal, uniform standards and a monocultural curriculum that have negative effects on poor children and children of color (Lauder & Hughes, 1999). They believe privileged groups receive enrichment such as theater, art, music, and foreign languages and elective courses that go far beyond the minimal requirements of basic standards (Swope, 2000).

Others, such as Apple (2001), McNeil (2000), Miner (2000), and Swope (2000), believe it is unfortunate that results of standardized achievement tests are used as measures of success in reform efforts, because there are instances when tests have been used to legitimize social inequality. According to Ladson-Billings (1994), standards and the accompanying tests have become powerful strategies for rich schools, because they use their monies to participate in self-validating testing programs. As a result, they can receive additional federal grants to encourage more expansive programs to create broader community support. Grants and impressive test scores translate into willingness on the part of the community to invest in the school in a variety of ways, including new tax levies.

The result is that school officials who engage in self-validating programs often spend more time enhancing the public image of a good school and less time on pedagogical and curricular substance. Administrators with this mind-set adopt standardized testing without understanding the dynamics of how it impacts teaching and learning in the classroom (McNeil, 2000). Sound teaching practices that produce lasting results are sometimes forfeited to teach to the test.

In addition, current thinkers about knowledge production emphasize that knowledge is not transmitted or handed down from teacher to student; rather, people gain knowledge out of their own experiences (Banks & Banks, 2001). Therefore, many areas cannot be identified by competencies on a test. Another related issue is the attempt to standardize core knowledge ... various disciplines. According to Apple (1990), the standards movement does not respond to the fundamental question of whose knowledge is of most worth.

Chapter 7 presents an overview of the standards-based reform movement and its effects on what schools do to assist diverse learners in achieving those standards. Chapter 8 goes into detail, focusing on the dilemmas in alignment of standards when state agencies engage in "accountability." It discusses case studies from around the country and examines recent and pending legislative reforms affecting teacher education standards, assessment, and diverse populations.

Conclusion

The relationships among diversity, standards, and assessments continue to be intricately interwoven, because a disproportionate percentage of students from diverse backgrounds are experiencing failure in American schools. National standards prepared by NCATE, INTASC, and NBPTS as well as state standards set admirable goals for addressing failure and improving education in our nation. But standards and the continuous development of standards are not the problem. The real concern lies in the context in which standards and assessments are being met or not being met, the manipulation of standards to maintain the status quo, and the use of standards as a tool of genuine reform.

Other issues lie in the area of aligning standards. Is there a match between the preparation of teachers and what they will need in schools? Is there a match between standards and what is actually being taught in the schools? Is there a match between national and state standards? If not, how do we begin to tackle the issue of alignment?

An overall agreement on the desire for high standards is apparent, but standards alone are not synonymous with excellent teachers and educational success for all students, particularly students of color. In general, we must revisit the range of standards available, because they serve as a basis for implemented policies in schools and various other educational institutions. In this volume, authors take on the challenge and critically analyze the impact of current standards on the academic performance of students of color and poor children. They also identify ways to resolve the problems of ineffectiveness and exclusion by proposing new formulations of policies and determining factors that will allow standards to promote high academic achievement for all students.

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2

ACCOUNTABILITY AND ASSESSMENT IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Boyce C. Williams, National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education
Jerrie Cobb Scott, University of Memphis

Perhaps no other words occur more frequently in today's discussion of educational reform than *accountability* and *assessment*. This chapter examines the assessment-driven accountability movement with a focus on teacher education programs. Three questions are posed: (a) How did teacher education programs come to be involved in the move for mandatory accountability? (b) How are teacher education programs responding to accountability standards? and (c) How can minority issues be included systematically and systemically in the evolving accountability/assessment movement?

The basic premise of the first part of the chapter is that the pressures of accountability and assessment have led many teacher education professionals to view themselves as "the blamed." The second part of the chapter describes strategies that are being developed to address accreditation standards, while the third identifies internal concerns that are potential areas for influencing the evolving mandatory accountability policies. Finally, we discuss some of the major accountability issues treated in the first three parts, focusing on implications for systematically and systemically including minority issues in the practices and policies of the evolving accountability agenda. The overarching theme of the chapter is that teacher education programs must continue to make equity a condition for educational excellence by maintaining the vision of the coexistence of excellence and equity as a means of ensuring quality education for all students.

From Voluntary to Mandatory Involvement

Recently, a group of students in a graduate course opened their presentation on school reform with a popular children's game called the Cookie Jar Game. Those who are familiar with the game will likely appreciate its use as a metaphor for the cycle of blame that is characteristic of the accountability debate. In the game, one player asks, "Who stole the cookie

from the cookie jar?" Another player responds, "*A* stole the cookie from the cookie jar." The game continues back and forth, "Who, me?" "Yes, you!" "Couldn't be." "Then who?" And A passes the onus along: "*B* stole the cookie from the cookie jar!" The presenters' point, and ours, is that some of the major issues about educational reform engage players in a turn-taking strategy that allows one group to deny guilt and assign blame to another group.

As the graduate students pointed out in their presentation, at some point in the game, the blamer becomes the blamed. And now teacher education seems to be taking its turn as the blamed. With the increased use of assessment as a measure of accountability, the rules of the game have been extended from merely taking turns denying and assigning blame to identifying the responsible parties and conferring consequences.

The blame game in education, or in society for that matter, is not new. We can certainly find players in virtually all the past educational reform movements—from the establishment of free public schools with its clear intent to remove class-based stratification to the establishment of segregated schools with its clear intent to establish race-based separation of schools. But fast-forward to a more recent event, one that led more directly to our current debates over teacher education and accountability: the 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* decision. This decision might be described as a formal, externally imposed mandate to change from segregated to integrated schooling.

Certainly this landmark decision represents one of the most critical points in educational reform of the 20th century, for it began in truth a search for how to educate all the children, a buzz phrase that is found frequently in today's accountability debates. Tensions escalated with the prospect that educating all children well and doing so in the most effective and most efficient manner (get results for less money in less time) would require educating all the children in the same space with need-appropriate curricula and pedagogy. This externally imposed mandate for accountability stands out because it forced both professionals and the general public to imagine school as a place where both excellence and equity could reside, despite the fact that the problems of inequities and injustices permeated all sectors of society.

By the late 1960s, researchers were seriously investigating the needs of those children whose language, ethnic identity, culture, and home situations had been systematically and systemically ignored in designing educational programs. As recommendations for curricula and pedagogy that would address the academic and social needs of a diverse student popula-

tion evolved, it was immediately apparent that radical changes in education needed to be made. The blame game was set in motion. Some felt that the meager attempts to desegregate the schools and the largely unsuccessful attempts to integrate the schools threatened the return to a former golden age of educational excellence. The culprits to be blamed for this loss of a vision of excellence were underserved children and their families.

Others believed that uninformed, though sometimes well-intentioned, schools were to blame for the loss of a vision of educational equity. An important question to ask now is Who stole the excellence-equity vision of schools that would educate all the children? Was it the underserved families, the uninformed schools, or some combination of agents acting on behalf of an assessment-driven accountability movement?

Up to this point, the involvement of teacher education in accountability was largely voluntary, having its most apparent genesis in voluntary participation in the accreditation process. Up to this point, the blame game tended to end after all players took their turns blaming and denying guilt; by the mid-1980s, however, the rules were beginning to change. The context for accountability discussions shifted as well—from an emphasis on domestic concerns over schools' failure to effectively educate all children in America to more global concerns over the failure of the American education system to protect the nation's interest in a highly competitive, "shrinking" world (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Going beyond the traditional pattern of assigning blame without immediate or direct consequences, the report redefined the terms of engagement to include such consequences.

To arrive at consequences, there was a need to provide clear indicators of expected outcomes (standards), tangible evidence of failure (test scores), and mechanisms for correcting undesirable results (penalties). Quantifiable measures were called into play. Results from standardized tests could be used to establish clear, manageable, seemingly fair conditions for determining who should be held accountable, for what, and how. In other words, test results were coupled with high-stakes decisions, giving rise to the popular term *high-stakes testing* that is used so often in today's discussions of accountability. Quantified data, then, became the driving force for identifying the culprits, instituting penalties, and presumably reducing and ultimately eliminating school failure.

It should be noted that throughout the latter part of the 20th century, teacher education professionals were engaged in setting their own reform agendas, searching for and instituting changes to better prepare teachers to address the needs of an increasingly diverse society and stu-

dent population. In addition, an increasing number of teacher education programs voluntarily sought national accreditation, which is the traditional way of demonstrating accountability to constituents and the general public. Consequently, teacher education was being restructured voluntarily in response to both internal and external accreditation standards.

Noteworthy also is the fact that teacher education programs redirected attention toward becoming better supporters of and partners with school programs. In the dual role of helping schools respond to an endless list of change initiatives related to mandated accountability measures and making voluntary changes in teacher education programs, teacher educators became actively involved in the accountability movement on a voluntary basis. At the same time, though, teacher educators and teacher education programs were becoming culprits in the accountability game, as evidenced by questions raised about whether teacher education programs adequately prepare teachers and about the value-added promises of teacher education programs.

By the beginning of the 21st century, standards for validating the accountability of teacher education programs were well on their way to shifting from standards based on inputs and efforts to standards based on outputs and results. In addition, stronger linkages between teacher education programs and schools were sought. Accreditation standards for teacher education programs were themselves changing in response to the mandates for schools to be held more accountable.

The rationale for these changes is intimately linked to the standards movement, which is intimately linked to the call for assessment-driven accountability measures. Standards were written to clearly articulate what P-12 students should know and be able to do. Then assessments were developed as an effort to ensure accountability for the achievement of the standards. It followed then that teacher preparation standards would need to operate within the context of other systems and other sets of standards, which meant aligning the teacher preparation, licensing, and professional development standards with one another. As Wise and Leibbrand (2001) put it:

> Colleges of education will have to reinvent themselves to prepare candidates to attain the proficiencies described in professional and state teacher performance standards, and they will have to document their candidates' attainment through clear assessments, including results on performance-oriented measures and mentoring year assessments. (p. 248)

In the school accountability movement, attention was given to what students know and can do, whereas in the teacher education accountability movement, attention is given to what teachers should know and can do. Much of the restructuring in teacher education centers on finding ways to show what teacher candidates and graduates know and can do. A salient feature of the shift to outputs is the development of performance-based standards. A salient feature of the demand for teacher education program accountability is the establishment of professional development schools.

Then came proposals for state-mandated accountability measures, the report card requirement being perhaps among the most offensive. Thus, teacher education is itself struggling with responding to demands for greater accountability coming from both accrediting bodies and state agencies. Many teacher education professionals have witnessed and supported the schools in their role as the blamed and are now beginning to see themselves as the blamed—culprits of the Cookie Jar/Accountability Game.

Having shown how teacher education has moved from voluntary to mandatory participation in the accountability movement, we now ask two other critical questions: How are teacher education programs responding to the more rigorous accreditation standards? And how might teacher education programs use views from the profession to respond to and help shape the evolving mandatory accountability demands?

Responses to Accountability and Accreditation Standards

On one hand, education professionals have risen to the challenges put forth by accreditation standards in hopes not only of securing their traditional means of showing accountability—i.e., through accreditation—but also of creating new norms of behavior around reform ideas and concepts in the profession. On the other hand, education professionals have continued to push for internally defined standards, driven partially by suspicions about the motives of mandatory accountability and partially by strong beliefs in their research and professional judgment about what it takes to prepare teachers who can perform well in areas that have not and likely cannot be incorporated into existing structures of assessment-driven accountability requirements.

In this section, we address the question of responses to accountability standards relevant to accreditation. The challenge of moving to performance-based standards has been responded to with a vigorous search for documentation strategies, mechanisms for collecting performance data

from entrance to postgraduation, and valid and reliable measures of assessing authentic teaching behaviors. Regarding documentation strategies, some institutions have set out to define and address barriers to developing effective data management systems. For example, Pankratz (2001) identifies such barriers as failure to value the role of data management systems, lack of resources, and lack of an ongoing research program that links candidate, program, performance, and P-12 learning data.

Regarding the collection of performance-based data, Evans (2001) identifies the data set that is being used at Western Kentucky University as part of its accountability system. The list includes data such as program information, electronic portfolios, field experience logs, and exit and graduate follow-up data.

Regarding the collection of data, Idaho State University uses three portfolios: (a) an admission portfolio, consisting of a biographical essay, informed beliefs, case study analysis of analytic and critical-thinking skills, and an individual differences student profile; (b) a developmental portfolio, consisting of an expanded statement of informed beliefs; learning teacher context entry; philosophy of inquiring, thinking, and knowing; decision case analysis; classroom management plan; and motivation and management case analysis; and (c) an exit portfolio, consisting of a technology assessment, textbook appraisal and selection, a teaching performance evaluation, teacher work samples, and teaching videotape. In assessing the data collected, it is obviously critical to design valid and reliable standards-based performance assessment. Pankratz (2001) suggests clearly defined expectations; structured tasks; user-friendly scoring rubrics that are aligned with standards, tasks, and benchmarks; and trained scorers.

Further, teacher induction programs have gained popularity, especially the partnering of entry-level teachers with mentors. They are often linked to the notion of continuous professional development and the expansion of the career ladder for teachers. During entry-level years, teachers receive temporary 1- or 2-year certifications, followed by professional certification after the intern period, and later national certification. Quite possibly this approach will be handled better by school districts as part of their teacher evaluation process than by teacher education programs. Unlike the earlier two approaches, the establishment of professional development schools seems to be more appealing for linking teacher education to schools to the largest number of teacher education professionals.

According to *Standards for Professional Development Schools* (Levine, 2001), professional development school standards were developed to (a)

support continuous improvement in schools and teacher education programs; (b) support professional development school partnerships as they develop; (c) provide feedback about the work; and (d) provide a framework for conducting and evaluating research on outcomes associated with professional development school partnerships. Professional development schools are thought to be important because they bring together two streams of reform: standards-based reform and school restructuring at the P-12 level.

Research on the impact of professional development schools on student learning is scant, but the research conducted by Knight, Wiseman, and Cooner (2000) provides an example of how teacher education programs can impact student achievement. Their study was designed as a three-phase collaborative venture. The first phase of the model included developing the capacity for research in the school-university research teams. The second phase of the research format used the profiles to generate research questions. After questions are framed, the appropriate data collection procedures are tailored to fit unique school-university sites. Finally, the last phase of the research focused on implementation of the research design, including establishing methods of data analysis, interpretation, and dissemination. This work shows that such research can be a viable tool for showing the impact of teacher education programs' involvement with professional development schools as well as the direct impact on the learning of P-12 students.

Concerns of Professional Educators

This section turns to some of the areas that are of concern to professionals but that tend not to be part of the dialogue on assessment-driven accountability measures. We take this discussion as evidence of target areas for potential inclusion in the accountability movement or for broad-based, internally defined standards for preparing high-quality teachers.

Beyond developing strategies that respond to the accountability standards of accrediting bodies, professional educators have continued to define areas of reform they deem important and essential for realizing the vision of excellence and equity in education. Responses from the professional community vary considerably, but there are clearly some areas of immense concern to professional educators that are not reflected in the emerging mandates for teacher education accountability.

Some of these areas may be viewed as potential elements for inclusion in the accountability movement or in the reform of teacher education programs. In either case, reforms for teacher education programs should

not lose sight of the research- and experience-based knowledge of the insiders—the professional educators.

Speaking specifically to state-imposed mandates or proposed mandates for accountability, Apple (2001) cautions the profession to pay attention to the political ramifications of blindly accepting some of the popular yet conservative demands for accountability—for example, the creation of proposals to totally deregulate teacher education so competition is generated among institutions of higher education, private for-profit training agencies, and school districts themselves.

Another warning focuses on the move to create uniformity through a system of more centralized authority over what counts as important teaching skills and knowledge to increase professional competence. More standardized tests have been added for teachers in an attempt to ensure that teacher education programs are held publicly accountable. State report cards have resulted in competition for funds and status. Indeed, many states have pushed ahead with plans to publicly display the teacher certification scores of teacher education programs. Apple's warning suggests that teacher education programs might consider incorporating the preparation of teachers to understand the ideological and political basis of school reform. According to Cochran-Smith (2001), the element missing from the discourse on higher standards and more demonstrable outcomes is teachers' capacity to deal with change. She suggests parameters for developing skilled change agents with moral purpose and the development of education programs that have leadership and change as a part of their conceptual framework.

In an analysis of documents on teacher education reform, Valli and Rennert-Arviev (2000) found that the two areas of reform receiving strongest agreement across various teacher education reform reports were that teacher education programs should ensure strong pedagogically informed disciplinary preparation and develop multicultural competence in their students. Their analysis implies that teacher education programs might consider the areas of pedagogically informed disciplinary preparation and multicultural competence as targets for accountability.

Other issues remain on the table, but the above discussion identifies three major areas of concerns regarding the accountability/assessment problems confronting professional educators. One concern is whether or not teacher education programs should blindly accept the terms of engagement for accountability in teacher education programs. If so, Apple (2001) suggests that we must be aware of the potential consequences,

many of which do not appear in the public dialogue of reasoned justifications for accountability.

Second, there is concern as to whether the current accountability demands will drive programs to outcomes that threaten to diminish a value long held by educators—the value of preparing teachers who can engage effectively in an ever-changing school and societal environment. Third, there is the concern that of the many recommendations for teacher education reform that have been advocated, the two areas showing the most agreement across recommendations—pedagogically informed disciplinary studies and multicultural competence—may have the lowest priority in the policies put forth under the rubric of accountability and assessment.

To the question of what teacher education programs should be accountable for, this discussion points to three potential target areas that are not given much play in the discourse on accountability and assessment: (a) preparing teachers to understand the political dimensions of school reform; (b) preparing teachers as change agents with moral purpose; and (c) incorporating pedagogically informed disciplinary and multicultural competencies into the curriculum. All have specific implications for how minorities are influencing and being influenced by mandates for teachers in an assessment-driven teacher education accountability system.

Implications for Minorities

In this section, we return to topics discussed earlier that have special implications for minorities in the accountability movement. From the discussion above, four areas are pinpointed for fuller discussion: (a) excellence versus equity, (b) stratification versus diversification, (c) passive versus active morality, and (d) multicultural versus traditional teaching competencies. Many teacher education programs have established, in their preparation for accreditation reviews, a framework for addressing the minority issues discussed here. The two overarching themes in this discussion are systematic practices and systemic policies. In other words, how might minority issues be systematically and systemically included in the evolving accountability practices and policies?

Excellence Versus Equity

In the introduction to this chapter, we posed a question: Who stole the vision of the coexistence of excellence and equity in education? This is obviously a question of educational vision. When minorities are figured into the accountability equation, the vision of the coexistence of excellence and equity in education tends to fade. This fading vision is one of

the major areas of concern regarding minorities and the accountability movement. Although the accountability movement clearly emphasizes excellence, several outcome-based indicators point to today's accountability practices as not reducing inequities. In schools, these indicators come in the form of low student pass rates on standardized tests, declining numbers of minority teachers, and the reduction of resources for schools that have the largest number of minority students and teachers.

In teacher education programs, minority students frequently complain about costs of retaking exams and the time, money, and effort required to complete their degrees in a timely fashion.

Resource allocations based on teacher education report cards could lead to new funding formulas linked to test scores on teacher certification exams. Clearly, education programs that serve predominantly minority students—such as predominantly African American and Hispanic colleges and universities—are most at risk, for their students tend to be among the lowest scorers, making the institutions the most susceptible to receiving reduced funds despite evidence that these programs offer a rich supply of effective minority teachers for employment.

From another perspective, we will do well to consider that the so-called "marketized" approach to school accountability can have both an economic and an ideological effect on perceptions about the value of having minority teachers and teacher educators in schools and teacher education programs. Ideologically, the often-heard statement "diversity is a value" may no longer apply as systems shift to embrace the spirit of competition. In an economic sense, minority candidates may appear to be liabilities instead of assets. As Apple puts it, increased competition produces a "spiral of decline" and the question becomes more one of "what the student can do for the school than what the school can do for the student" (2001, p. 189). The age-old dilemma of how to serve two masters—the economic and the humanistic/social—continues to blind us to the possibilities of realizing the vision of an educational system where both excellence and equity can reside.

Where's the vision? The vision of educational excellence and equity may be dimmed, but it is certainly not lost. It is most readily apparent in the conceptual frameworks of teacher education programs. In this regard, accreditation standards have been helpful, because the guidelines for developing conceptual frameworks have caused many institutions to talk the talk of promoting both educational excellence and equity. More than ever, this vision should be preserved in practice and in policy; however, we need to push forward with finding ways to transform the talk about

excellence and equity into action. One way to do so is by developing standards that demonstrate the value added by making equity a necessary condition for excellence. In what follows, we suggest that this action needs to take place on at least three fronts: diversification, active morality, and multicultural competence.

Stratification Versus Diversification

In the second part of this chapter, we referred to Apple's warnings (2001) about the possible impact of some of the accountability measures on teacher education. His views on stratification are quite provocative:

> If there is a return to a traditional curriculum measured by traditional and reductive testing that has profound effects on equity, we can also expect an even more highly stratified student population and an even more highly stratified school experience for these students. (p. 194)

Apple's concern about a "highly stratified student population" is one others hold as well. In the schools, the increased emphasis on testing has resulted in an increase in tracking programs. As for teacher education programs, the public display of performance data from teacher certification exams could lead to even more concerted efforts to admit students who test well, resulting in a more highly socially stratified student population. In turn, the expansion of status-based criteria for classifying teacher education programs could result in a more highly stratified faculty, making it difficult for teacher education programs to attract a diverse pool of faculty.

The term "highly stratified school experience" reflects concerns about the differentiated experiences of children in public versus private schools, gifted versus remedial courses of study, college versus vocational tracks, and well-supported versus poorly supported schools. The key mechanism driving higher levels of stratified learning experiences in higher education is the distribution of funds to support programs—the possibility that fund allocations will be differentiated according to the status of the teacher education programs. Lower status programs could well receive less money to provide the same kinds of learning experiences that higher status schools provide. Although higher education will not have the same effects as P-12 schools, both suffer from the same oppositional forces: stratification versus diversification. An important question to ask—in the accountability schema—is whether the effects of stratification decrease the present commitment to diversification in teacher education programs.

Over the past 2 decades, considerable attention has been given to diversification in teacher education programs, again driven partially by

accreditation standards. To show diverse composition of students and faculty, quantitative data are kept on gender, race, and ethnic affiliations. Should stratification replace the diversification focus, we can imagine that in the name of improved quality, we would be reduced to profiling socioeconomic status indicators instead of diversity indicators. Because we have already begun the practice of collecting data and developing strategies for recruiting and retaining a more diverse population of students and faculty, we need to expand these practices to avoid the possible negative consequences of replacing diversification with stratification.

What to do? In practice, we need to go beyond the minimal requirements of accreditation standards for diverse composition. More attention needs to be given to effective practices for recruiting and retaining a more gender- and ethnically diverse student and faculty population. From a policy perspective, we need to use the data collected on composition and the compilation of effective practices to develop foundational information needed for demonstrating the value-added quality of diversification. It is not possible to advocate persuasively for diversification policies without data on the diverse composition of programs and a stock of exemplary practices for recruiting and retaining a diverse population of students and faculty. Much of the work needed has been initiated, but continuing efforts will demonstrate the possibilities.

Critical to recruiting and retaining a diverse population of students and faculty is the climate of an institution, the extent to which all can participate fully as active, involved members of the academic community. Many institutions have set up faculty-to-student and faculty-to-faculty mentoring programs to help new students and faculty members adjust to the environment and become members of the community. There is much room for growth in this area, for even with mentoring programs, the problem of what Padilla (1995) calls cultural taxation still exists. Cultural taxation refers to the overextension of the services and responsibilities of minority faculty as a result of their underrepresentation and to attempts to make their presence known.

Similarly, some institutions have used mentoring programs to aid in the adjustment of underrepresented, ethnically diverse students and faculty. Such initiatives need to be continued but with more structured plans that address the specific problems faced by those perceived as different. Beyond identifying the problems, some researchers have gone on to develop instruments for assessing the climate of programs (S. Cooley, personal communication, 2000).

Also available are discipline-specific programs that cross institutions. For example, the National Council of Teachers of English has developed and funded a program called Cultivating New Voices, which matches entry-level minority professionals in linguistics, language, and language arts with senior professors who share their specialization areas. The program is designed to allow regular meetings of mentors and fellows as well as to encourage ongoing communication and joint presentations and publications.

The benefits of mentoring/buddy programs are readily apparent: More inclusive environments help in recruiting faculty and students of color, and the mentoring programs within and across institutions aid in the preparation of faculty for tenure and promotion, thereby improving the retention of faculty of color. None of these practices alone will be sufficient. Research must also be undertaken that shows the impact of these programs on the recruitment and retention of minority students and teachers and that shows the value added to the quality of the program. Moreover, mechanisms for linking effective practices in diversification to policies are needed.

From a policy perspective, we need to generate the type of information that will help balance the accountability equation by holding policy makers accountable for providing resources to offset the predicted negative consequences of placing stratification in competition with diversification. The recent rage over race-based decisions in recruiting, retaining, and providing scholarship support (e.g., the recent decision of the state of Florida to eliminate race-based scholarships) suggests the need to shift the emphasis from race-based to need-based policies.

Accountability data that encourage diversification can be used to identify needs. Reallocating resources in ways that encourage stratification can be redirected toward targeted assistance to the most needy. Evidence is plentiful that the most needy are also those who are most at risk of being left out of the agenda for improving education through excellence and equity. Overall, we need to develop practices that systematically include diversification and policies that systemically support diversification via need-based assistance.

Passive Versus Active Morality

We earlier discussed Cochran-Smith's appeal (2001) for teacher education programs to consider ways to develop teachers who are change agents with moral purpose. This appeal speaks directly to the question of how teacher education programs define and develop dispositions appropriate

for teaching in diverse educational settings. Passive morality leads to teachers who may learn to think differently but remain inactive in their response to injustices, whereas active morality leads to teachers who think critically about injustices and act upon them.

Apple (2001) distinguishes between "thick morality," wherein "principles of the common good are the ethical basis for adjudicating policies and practices," and "thin morality," wherein principles based on "competitive individualism" guide decisions (p. 190). In applying the concepts of change agents with moral purpose and thick and thin morality to teaching dispositions, we surmise that change agents with moral purpose are predisposed to employ active morality undergirded by principles of thick morality. In other words, underlying the types of dispositions that are best suited for educating a diverse population of students are principles of thick morality, and principles of thick morality enable one to practice active morality.

Put in the context of underlying principles and resulting practices, the type of teaching dispositions desired for effective teaching in educational settings with diverse populations of students can be translated into behaviors that lend themselves to more explicit teaching and assessment. Teaching dispositions, as manifested in thought and action, are the key determining factors in the development of inclusive classroom environments. Much of the work on inclusive classroom environments has focused on teacher expectations as a key variable in student performance. Minority students are negatively affected by low expectations that ultimately result in self-fulfilling prophecies of failure. By some accounts, the persistent patterns of failure among minority students are partially the result of the failure of teacher education programs to seriously assess the dispositions of teacher candidates. Burant (1999) notes one of the lessons learned from her case study of preservice teachers, particularly African Americans: "Along with continued attempts to transform culturally insular preservice teachers into teachers who can and will teach all children, teacher education may need to concentrate on screening for dispositions for diversity" (p. 216). Examples of good practice in this area are programs that include the assessment of dispositions in their admission requirements, their ongoing assessment of students' learning in classes, and their assessments of behaviors in clinical settings.

Haberman (1987) is among those who have suggested that the assessment of dispositions be given more attention in relation to ethnically diverse learning settings. In this regard, Haberman's criteria (1987) for assessing dispositions have gained prominence. In her description of the

screening process used in an alternative route to certification program designed for urban, ethnically diverse schools, Chance (1998) includes screening for dispositions as an important element of the program admission process. She notes that "if for any reason an applicant passes the other selection criteria but does not demonstrate the necessary predispositions and skills in the Haberman selection interview for directly relating to all types of children, he/she is excluded from the program" (p. 64).

Exclusion is one possible consequence, but another is the development of dispositions by greater exposure to and experience with diverse groups. Some programs have added service components that require teacher candidates to work directly with diverse populations. The rationale here is that experience becomes the best teacher of respect and understanding. Not to be overlooked is the growing body of research on how a teacher's beliefs affect the classroom environment (King & Franklin, 1989; Terrill & Mark, 2000). This work helps to highlight the importance of establishing more rigorous measures of assessing teacher dispositions.

In sum, minorities are negatively affected by passive morality; therefore, practices with respect to the assessment and development of active morality need to be addressed. As suggested here, one way to do this is developing performance-based standards targeted toward enhancing dispositions. Places to monitor the development of dispositions more rigorously may include learning environments in field and student experiences. Teaching evaluation forms need to be taken seriously, encouraging service as a means of providing practice for developing morality with a purpose. Research on attitudes and beliefs should be extended, and more focused attention should be given to dispositions. These steps will provide more specific indicators of the types of dispositions that are needed to develop wholesome learning environments in diverse educational settings. Regarding policy, the assessment and research data can then be used to inform directions for developing culturally sensitive dispositions as reflected in classroom environments.

Multicultural Versus Traditional Teaching Competencies

Multicultural competence, as discussed by Valli and Rennert-Arviev (2000), speaks to the issue of curriculum and pedagogy. Recall that they identified multicultural competence as one of the two areas that showed the most agreement across recommendations of such groups as Carnegie, the National Council on Excellence in Teacher Education, the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, The Holmes Group, The

Renaissance Group, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, and the Teacher Education Accreditation Council. As Valli and Rennert-Arviev (2000) point out, despite the strong agreement on the importance of teaching multicultural perspectives, teachers still express discomfort with and resistance to working in multicultural settings. They suggest that accrediting agencies may have strong diversity language in their standards but teacher candidates still feel inadequately prepared and seldom choose to teach in multicultural schools, especially those with high rates of poverty. Studies suggest that in most teacher education institutions, fewer than 12% of new teachers express a willingness to teach in an urban school (Carter & Larke, 1995).

How are minorities affected? In the accountability movement, there is an emphasis on identifying and selecting areas to be tested: The search for what teachers need to know and be able to do is generally defined in terms of "the basics," a code phrase for traditional content and pedagogical practices. It is informed by the work of two groups: experts who tend to be concerned with using the knowledge of the average mainstream male as the model of what educated people need to know (Hirsch, 1996) and the so-called traditionalists, who advocate returning to the basics and to a mythological golden age of education. Both these schools of thought exclude the work that seeks to expand the curriculum to include information about the "other" cultural groups or about the learning patterns and teaching styles of those groups.

Also excluded are the research- and theory-driven principles of learning derived from constructivism, which has become widely used as the foundation of the curriculum and pedagogy components of teacher education programs. Excluded from the assessment/accountability rhetoric, then, are the multicultural content and the culturally sensitive pedagogy that enable teacher education programs to develop multicultural competence.

Consequently, there is a growing gap between what is taught in teacher education programs and what teachers are actually required to do to adjust to the demands of accountability. In the very critical areas of curriculum and pedagogy, concern is growing about aligning the curricula of teacher education programs and P-12 schools. There is a fear that once the alignment is completed, teacher education programs will be faced with eliminating many aspects of curriculum that make for effective teaching performance, such as cultural information and culturally sensitive pedagogy.

Valli and Rennert-Arviev (2000) pose several more provocative questions:

> Is it necessary for accrediting agencies, universities, and state licensing agencies to put more teeth in diversity requirement? Do universities and teacher education programs need to more carefully monitor and evaluate diversity efforts to ensure that teachers understand language, racial, social, and cultural differences in the context of their classrooms and classroom practices? Should universities have a stronger mission to recruit and prepare teachers for urban settings? Should school districts, states, and federal agencies partner with colleges and universities to offer incentives that prepare, attract, and retain high-quality teachers for high-poverty, multicultural settings? (p. 15)

These questions are not new, but they do beg for a response. Valli and Rennert-Arviev agree that individual institutions, states, and reform groups can deal with policy and practice questions, but they argue that a broad-based coalition can be more effective at keeping the issue in the forefront, sponsoring research, and influencing district, state, and federal policies.

Examples of practices that a broad-based curriculum should consider are found in a number of works. Banks (1994) offers the transformational and social action approach to integrating multicultural content across the teacher education curriculum. Gay (2000) identifies characteristics of culturally sensitive pedagogy. Zeichner et al. (1998) provide an organizational framework through the use of 16 standards for educating all teachers for diversity. The common strand that runs across their proposals, and others like them, is the principle of holism. It is apparent that teacher education programs more than ever need to use the evolving knowledge base on diverse groups to assess programs for multicultural content and culturally sensitive pedagogy. Given the growing body of information, it is now possible to systematically employ assessment practices that test multicultural competence in terms of curricular content, culturally sensitive pedagogy, and program standards. To affect policy in a systemic way, we need more research-informed policy recommendations, including research that shows the impact of multicultural competence on learning in Grades P-12. With this knowledge base, it would be possible to add still another element to the articulation of a vision for the coexistence of excellence and equity in the education system.

In sum, this chapter has attempted to add still another perspective on how the assessment-based accountability movement affects teacher education programs in general and minority issues in particular. We have suggested that the particular brand of accountability that confronts teacher

education programs today demonstrates the urgency of the need to reaffirm the vision of the coexistence of excellence and equity. The promise that no child will be left behind is rapidly becoming a cliché, and only a cliché. Appeals to the public for support of the mandates for accountability with consequences are being made at a time when resources for education are being reduced. With the general public being the first to feel the sting of budget cuts for education, the public will also be the first to rethink the efficacy of decisions that mandate from the top but leave the challenge of funding these mandates to the public.

History teaches, but its lessons do not always result in learning, as demonstrated in the first part of this chapter. Externally imposed accountability standards can cause changes in education, as demonstrated by the way that teacher education programs have been able to respond to the assessment-driven call for accountability. Responses, however, have not ended with externally imposed consequences; they have continued with internal commitments to stay on the path toward excellence and equity.

In the end, staying on the path to excellence and equity will require teacher education programs to develop practices that systematically include minority issues and policies that systemically remove injustices. Suggested here is that those practices and policies must be directed toward three areas that consistently affect the inclusion of minority issues in the dialogue: first, diversification to offset the growing movement toward stratification; second, the development of teaching dispositions characterized by active morality to guard against preparing teachers who are unable to act in accordance with their own sense of purpose; third, the development of multicultural competence to ensure that teachers know and are able to address the needs of an increasingly diverse student population. Only by making equity a condition for excellence can we hope to offer teacher education programs that address the needs of all children.

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3

PRESERVICE TEACHER PREPARATION: CHALLENGES OF DIVERSITY IN NCATE ACCREDITATION

Gwendolyn Trotter, Livingstone College
Cristina Rios, Indiana University-South Bend

Diversity on some college campuses can be viewed as "now you see it, now you don't." This frequent illusion at universities across the country presents major challenges of balancing diversity accountability with diversity responsibilities. This "balance" should bring as much attention to responsibility, which is a moral obligation, as has been given to accountability, which is measured. This balance is a major feat as teacher education units take on the task of addressing the recently released standards of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE).

This chapter analyzes and interprets diversity accreditation challenges for teacher education units or institutions accredited by NCATE. First addressed is the scope and importance of the diversity challenge. Framing this critical challenge are the concepts of accountability and responsibility in relation to diversity. The dilemmas involved in the preparation of effective teachers for diverse learners are seen through accountability and responsibility lenses. The chapter addresses concerns about the application and interpretation of the standard on diversity by the NCATE Board of Examiners, NCATE Unit Accreditation Board, and teacher education faculty nationally. The application and interpretation of diversity standards are intricately woven into the fabric of teacher education and the manner in which institutions meet the diversity challenge. As this chapter concludes, questions are posed that must be answered with regard to accountability and responsibility. Recommendations are provided to ensure that the NCATE diversity standard is rigorously applied and enforced for the benefit of all children.

The Diversity Challenge

Increased attention has been placed on the quality of teachers nationwide. NCATE accreditation is central to the discussion as the quality assurance process for teacher preparation. NCATE is recognized by the

U.S. Department of Education, has partnerships with 46 states, and accredits more than 500 teacher colleges in the United States (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 2002). NCATE has stated that its primary mission is "helping to ensure that all children in America are in the hands of caring, competent, and qualified teachers. . . . [It] exists to improve the preparation of the nation's teachers, educational leaders, and other professional specialists" (NCATE, 2001, p. 2).

In an attempt to ensure that higher education is preparing competent teachers, NCATE has made substantial changes to its accreditation standards, moving to a performance-based system that requires evidence of candidate proficiencies and performance. In 2002, NCATE released a completely revised set of standards for accrediting teacher education units, known as NCATE 2000. A relevant aspect of the newest NCATE approach is that diversity receives priority treatment in one of the six standards (Standard 4). With this standard, NCATE has presented a challenge to education units and emphasized the importance of diversity:

> The unit designs, implements, and evaluates curriculum and experiences for candidates to acquire and apply the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to help all students learn. These experiences include working with diverse higher education and school faculty, diverse candidates, and diverse students in P-12 schools. (p. 10)

Each of the six professional standards presented in the official NCATE publication (2002) has a corresponding set of rubrics for use by teacher education units and Board of Examiners teams in determining whether a unit meets the relevant standard. The areas covered by the rubrics accompanying Standard 4 include

- Design, implementation, and evaluation of curriculum and experiences
- Experiences working with diverse faculty
- Experiences working with diverse candidates
- Experiences working with diverse students in P-12 schools

For accreditation, NCATE requires education units to meet all six standards, at the acceptable level, as specified in the rubrics (NCATE, 2002, pp. 45, 46). The rubrics are intended to guide the institution in continuously monitoring compliance with the standards; they include the specific elements to show compliance with the standards. The rubrics present accountability and responsibility challenges not only in terms of curricular content but also in the experience with diverse faculty, peers, and P-12 students. The rubrics emphasize the development of dispositions that will result in performances addressing diversity.

NCATE Board of Examiners teams examine the unit's conceptual framework and evidence of its commitment (responsibility) to diversity. NCATE 2002 states:

> The unit's conceptual framework(s) reflects the unit's commitment to preparing candidates to support learning for all students and provides a conceptual understanding of how knowledge, dispositions, and skills related to diversity are integrated across the curriculum, instruction, field experiences, clinical practice, assessments, and evaluations. (p. 13)

In addition to Standard 4, NCATE has incorporated diversity across the other standards and addresses many facets of diversity in its definition of the term: "Differences among groups of people and individuals based on ethnicity, race, socioeconomic status, gender, exceptionalities, language, religion, sexual orientation, and geographical area" (2002, p. 53). By incorporating diversity into the standards in such a strong way, the organization has affirmed its commitment to diversity in terms of both accountability and responsibility.

The beginning of the 21st century marks a heightened awareness of national and regional accreditation performance expectations. NCATE standards have moved from the 1960s traditional input or course paradigm to the 1990s output or performance assessment model. NCATE's attention to diversity since the 1970s has been in reference to the ability of teachers to teach all children. The diversity challenge directly relates to equity goals of the 1960s, ensuring that all children learn and have equal opportunities to learn. NCATE has stressed throughout these new standards the importance of the candidate's impact on student learning. The performance model expectation clearly requires that teacher candidates demonstrate that they can help all students learn: " 'All students' includes students with exceptionalities and of different ethnic, racial, gender, language, religious, socioeconomic, and regional/geographic origins" (NCATE, 2002, p. 14). The performance assessment model mandates accountability evidence of what the preservice teacher is able to do regarding teaching all children. Figure 3.1 presents an analysis of accountability and responsibility language related to diversity in the NCATE 2000 standards.

Ensuring that P-12 teachers go beyond a literal understanding and superficial application of diversity and multicultural issues has been one of the goals in teacher education since the 1960s. The NCATE standards, including Standard 4, represent the consensus of the profession about what is quality in teacher preparation. NCATE is a coalition of member organizations that represents approximately 3 million individuals

Figure 3.1. NCATE 2000 Standards' Language on Accountability and Responsibility in Diversity

Standard	Accountability language	Responsibility language
Standard 1: Candidate knowledge, skills, and dispositions	Assessments indicate that candidates meet professional, state, and institutional standards. *Target rubric:* Candidates . . . collect and analyze data related to student learning . . .	. . . dispositions necessary to help all students learn. *Supporting explanation:* Teacher candidates are able to create instructional opportunities adapted to diverse learners.
Standard 2: Assessment system and unit evaluation	. . . assessment system that collects and analyzes data on applicant qualifications . . . *Acceptable rubric:* Decisions about candidate performance are based on multiple assessments made at admission into programs, at appropriate transition points, and at program completion. . . . These data are regularly and systematically compiled, summarized, and analyzed to improve candidate performance . . .	*Supporting explanation:* Fairness, consistency, accuracy, and avoidance of bias in the assessment system must be considered. In particular, attention must be paid to the potential impact of the assessments on a diverse pool of teacher candidates. *Acceptable rubric:* The unit takes effective steps to eliminate bias in performance assessments and works to establish the fairness, accuracy, and consistency of its assessment procedures.
Standard 3: Field experiences and clinical practice	. . . demonstrate knowledge, skills, and dispositions to help all students learn. *Supporting explanation:* Accountability for clinical practice includes . . . the application of both entry and exit requirements for candidates . . . . The unit and its school partners use diverse assessment approaches to evaluate candidates . . .	*Acceptable rubric:* All candidates participate in field experiences or clinical practice that includes students with exceptionalities and students from diverse ethnic, racial, gender, and socioeconomic groups.
Standard 4: Diversity	The unit designs, implements, and evaluates curriculum and experiences for candidates to acquire and apply the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to help all students learn. These experiences include working with diverse higher education and school faculty, diverse candidates, and diverse students in P-12 schools. *Acceptable rubric:* Assessment data are used to provide feedback to candidates for improving their knowledge, skills, and dispositions.	*Supporting explanation:* Regardless of whether they live in areas with great diversity, candidates must develop knowledge of diversity in the United States and the world, dispositions that respect and value differences, and skills for working in diverse settings. *Acceptable rubric:* The affirmation of the value of diversity is shown through good-faith efforts made to increase or maintain faculty diversity [and] increase or maintain candidate diversity.
Standard 5: Faculty qualifications, performance, & development	*Acceptable rubric:* The unit provides opportunities for faculty to develop new knowledge and skills, especially as they relate to the conceptual frameworks [of] diversity.	*Acceptable rubric:* Faculty . . . integrate diversity . . . throughout their teaching.
Standard 6: Unit governance and resources	. . . unit has the leadership, authority, budget, personnel, facilities, and resources, including information technology resources, for the preparation of candidates to meet professional, state, and institutional standards.	*Supporting explanation:* The unit is responsible for the quality of all school personnel prepared at the institution regardless of where the program is administratively located within the institution.

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(NCATE, 2001, p. 25). These organizations have accepted that teacher education candidates must be able to comprehend and meet instructional needs regarding diversity. It is now imperative to determine whether teacher educators across the nation are committed to the concept of diversity and multicultural education as a necessary component of teacher education experiences.

Teacher education diversity experiences have moved beyond the expectation that lesson plans and exams for a course will provide sufficient evidence indicating capacity to teach all students. Tied to this expectation is a common national conversation about the lack of diversity among the candidates who are currently being trained as teachers to deliver quality instruction to all children. This group of future teachers is basically female and Caucasian and does not reflect the rapid growth of culturally different P-12 populations; in addition, this group of teachers is being prepared by a nondiverse group of faculty. Consider the facts that highlight diversity accountability and responsibility challenges:

- More than one third of students in P-12 classrooms are from minority groups (NCATE, 2002, p. 31).
- Minority teachers account for less than 15% of the teaching force (NCATE, 2002, p. 31).
- Of 6,559 doctoral degrees conferred in education in 1998, 77% were awarded to Whites, 0.4% to American Indians, 4.9% to Hispanics, and 11.3% to African Americans (Almanac, 2000, p. A12).
- Of 163,632 full professors in fall 1997, 145,025 were White, 5,240 were Black, and 2,921 were Hispanic (Almanac, 2000, p. A12).

These concerns clearly highlight the need to accept the accountability-responsibility challenge identified in Figure 3.2.

Major Challenges: Accountability and Responsibility

The major diversity challenge for the beginning of the 21st century is framed by the language of accountability and responsibility and by action. David Imig, president and chief executive officer of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), has given a series of presentations on accountability issues impacting teacher education. In a May 2001 address, Imig suggested that while accountability initiatives should be supported, hard questions should be asked:

1. Do those being held accountable have appropriate authority to act and resources to do the job?
2. Does the accountability system acknowledge individual and collective responsibilities?

Figure 3.2. Balancing Diversity Accountability and Responsibility: The Challenge

Diversity accountability	Diversity responsibility
• Type and number of multicultural experiences/faculty and student development activities	• Moral obligation to model diversity as a value in all aspects of teacher education unit activities
• Type and number of diverse field experience settings	• Modeling dispositions reflecting acceptance of diversity
• Number of diverse students	• Modeling of a "professional conscience" defined as "doing the right thing"
• Number of diverse faculty	• Modeling of the "common good responsibility"
• Unit conceptual framework addressing diversity	• Modeling of a "reasoning responsibility"
• Evidence that candidates can adapt instruction to meet the needs of diverse learners	• Commitment to ensure that "accountability gatekeepers" reflect diversity and diverse views
• Evidence of integration of candidate learning into diverse settings	• Commitment to a shared and valued definition of diversity
• Unit design, implementation, and evaluation of curriculum experiences relative to working with diverse higher education and school faculty, diverse candidates, and diverse students in P-12	• Commitment to link research activities with diversity decisions
	• Assurances that responsibility for diversity also links up with authority (power and knowledge)
• Candidates illustrate that diversity standards relative to the profession, state, and institution are understood	• Candidate performance demonstrates moral commitment and necessary dispositions to help all children learn

3. Is imposed accountability different from accountability built through professional consensus?
4. Does the accountability system include multiple indicators of achievement?
5. Do those involved understand and are they willing to accept the consequences of high-stakes accountability measures?

Although Imig's questions address accountability in the measurable sense, the questions are heavily weighted with responsibility issues. Note the question on appropriate authority to act and resources to do the job. Rarely is this question focused on diversity issues in teacher education programs. Addressing questions such as appropriate authority and other responsibility issues would encourage teacher educators to respond vigorously to the issue of weighing responsibility with accountability.

Diversity accountability, as illustrated in Figure 3.2, will continue to be viewed as that which is measurable or quantifiable. The measuring stick, the standards, have been fairly clear in the NCATE process, especially the 1992 and 1994 standards. The accountability language has become even more prominent in the NCATE 2000 standards. Even with a definite measuring stick, NCATE Board of Examiners and Unit Accreditation Board decisions have been rather fluid and changing in addressing diversity standards and criteria.

Responsibility, viewed as the sense of obligation with a deep and abiding moral dimension, had not been specifically addressed before the NCATE 2000 standards or in Unit Accreditation Board decisions. Addressing responsibility and balancing it with accountability will be a major challenge for institutions as well as for those interpreting the evidence to make accreditation decisions. Teacher education units must give special attention to the responsibility component as related to diversity and seriously consider the concept of helping all children learn. Educators must accept that each child is different, and they should accept that each child deserves the same opportunity to learn. With commitment to these concepts, the critical balance of accountability and responsibility must be prominent in the actions of teacher education units, faculty, and candidates. Figure 3.2 illustrates the major challenge of balancing accountability with responsibility.

Meeting the accountability issue by providing numbers of diversity experiences, diverse faculty, and diverse students appears to be routine for most teacher education programs. Many teacher education programs have been able to provide evidence and show compliance with the standards as related to diversity and meet the accountability demand. Whether such numbers are real or illusory is left to accrediting agencies. The responsibility requirements are seldom addressed. It becomes more difficult for institutions to provide evidence of responsibility regarding candidates' knowing how to adapt instruction and to integrate what they have learned into diverse settings.

If one interviewed a group of faculty and students at most accredited teacher education institutions, such faculty and students could articulate diversity accountability measures. Documentation would be provided that illustrates the unit's capacity for addressing diversity accountability. A different set of circumstances might appear when interviewing faculty and students about the area of diversity responsibility. Evidence to support a moral commitment, model dispositions, modeling actions of the com-

mon good, and responsibility is difficult to obtain and assess. Teacher education units may not be up to the responsibility challenge.

Most teacher education programs claim that they prepare candidates who demonstrate a commitment and the necessary dispositions to help all students learn. The challenge is whether the teacher education program can provide evidence that candidates meet this challenge of moral commitment and disposition. The major dilemma is how to prove through reliable evidence that every candidate, upon completion of the program, will be able to successfully educate all diverse learners. Determining who is responsible for diversity is another dilemma. Teacher education programs readily admit to diffused power and authority. Individuals and groups committed to diversity do not always have the necessary authority to enforce accountability and to foster responsibility. The commitment to link research activities with diversity decisions also becomes a challenge. Institutions have readily provided numbers regarding diversity, but using these numbers in research or decision making is rare.

Incorporating Diversity Into the Standards

NCATE has made a significant contribution and demonstrated a commitment to diversity by including a mandatory diversity standard. The issue of adopting a standard on diversity has already been the subject of heated discussion by regional accrediting associations, which accredit an entire institution rather than its programs.

The Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools precipitated a collision between diversity as a criterion for accreditation and the freedom of individual institutions to determine their own constituencies by delaying the reaccreditation of a New York college because of the college's poor record on diversity issues. The U.S. Department of Education threatened the Middle States Association by saying that it would no longer recognize the association as an accrediting agency. The controversy ended in 1991 with Middle States bowing to heavy pressure from the Secretary of Education by agreeing not to disqualify institutions solely on the basis of insufficient diversity.

In another instance, the Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC), also due for recognition by the Department of Education, had very intense discussions over at least three drafts of a proposed diversity statement that was not a standard. The statement insisted that a positive link existed between diversity and the quality of education and further stated that one of the purposes of education was to prepare students for the real world. Again bowing to heavy pressure from a small number of

institutions, WASC substantially weakened the statement. The position of the small number (15%) of institutions was based on the right of institutions to determine the best makeup of faculty, students, staff, and curriculum, especially for single-sex or religious institutions, and denied any link between diversity and quality (Swanson, 1996).

NCATE solicited comments during the development of the NCATE 2000 standards and before adopting them. NCATE may have to struggle through some of the same controversies that the regional accreditors faced. To be meaningful, the diversity standard should be rigorously and consistently applied to all teacher education units.

Diversity: Now You See It, Now You Don't

"There when it's not there" is illustrated in accountability measures when faculty and students use "glittering conversations and activities," believing they portray multicultural understandings. Nieto (2000) reports that in discussing diversity with teachers and other educators, teachers viewed multicultural education as a celebration of Black History Month and annual diversity dinners:

> Multicultural education in a sociopolitical context is both richer and more complex than simple lessons on getting along or units on ethnic festivals. Seen in this comprehensive way, educational success for all students is a realistic goal rather than an impossible ideal. (Nieto, 2000, p. 305)

Integrating diversity and multicultural issues in a meaningful way across the entire curriculum is a challenge for teacher education units, but transforming the curriculum can be done only by faculty. Faculty members will have to take the leadership in this effort. NCATE (2002) says that a "cohort of candidates and faculty from diverse groups informs the unit's curriculum, pedagogy, and format in culturally meaningful ways" (p. 32). According to Smith (1997):

> The evidence continues to grow that serious engagement of issues of diversity in the curriculum and in the classroom has a positive impact on attitudes toward racial issues, on opportunities to interact in deeper ways with those who are different, on cognitive development, and on overall satisfaction with the institution. These benefits are particularly powerful for white students who have had less opportunity for such engagement. (p. vi)

Some authors, as identified in a review of multicultural/diversity literature, appear to view multicultural synonymously with diversity (Chavez, O'Donnell, & Gallegos, 1994; Gollnick & Chinn, 1998; Reed, 1993). Haberman and Post (1992) have indicated that teacher education programs are not adequately preparing individuals for a multicultural soci-

ety. One reason appears to be low expectations for minorities by teachers in the classroom.

> Recent data on sociological perception suggest that over the past three decades the white majority of the U.S. population has not changed its stereotyped view of minority groups. The majority continues to perceive minorities as less intelligent, lazy, and of lower moral character. (Garcia, 1999, p. 65)

Teacher education units have a responsibility to ensure that every teacher candidate has overcome these perceptions.

As Ornstein and Levine (2002) emphasize, increasing the diversity of the teaching force to better reflect the student population is widely viewed as an important goal. They argue that "teachers from a cultural or ethnic minority group generally are in a better position than nonminority teachers to serve as positive role models for minority students" (p. 5). Many minority students, throughout their school years, do not have the opportunity to experience a teacher or faculty member who shares their culture, ethnicity, or other diverse attributes. According to the NCATE 2000 standards, another responsibility of the teacher education units is good-faith efforts to increase or maintain diversity of candidates and faculty (NCATE, 2002, p. 30). How can NCATE ensure that these good-faith efforts (responsibility) are really there?

In P-12 and higher education, the persons considered "gatekeepers" have become a major concern. Gatekeepers are the persons with the authority or ability to make decisions regarding admission of diverse candidates to the teacher education program, to play a role in hiring diverse faculty, to assign field experiences, and so on. It has been argued that students or faculty are simply unavailable. On the issue of faculty, Smith, Wolf, and Busenberg (1996) studied the actual availability of minority faculty compared with the myths of their shortage. They found that diverse faculty are usually available for openings but that on many occasions, "real" attempts are not made to reach them or to consider them for open positions. The study provides information that can help institutional planning for ensuring a more diverse faculty.

When the question is asked who the gatekeepers of diversity are, dissonance tends to occur because faculty and students are not sure who really makes the decisions. Who determines which people enter and exit as teacher education students? Who are the gatekeepers regarding the hiring of diverse faculty? How can the faculty who are committed to diversity ensure that gatekeepers are evaluated on their disposition for diversity? Is it possible that bias exists among the gatekeepers?

The board of directors of the American Association for Higher Education (AAHE) approved a position statement on diversity on April 26, 1999. The statement conveys an accountability and responsibility tone that provides a model for the diversity dilemmas faced by teacher educators.

> The AAHE Board of Directors forcefully affirms the interlocking values that are essential to the Association's work: quality, diversity, and improvement. Diversity creates the rich environments that are so crucial to democratic, real-world learning. Since by 2025 the American workforce will . . . predominantly [comprise] people of color, access to higher education for historically underserved individuals is also in the nation's economic self-interest. The Board believes that institutions of higher education have a moral and educational responsibility to ensure that talent is developed in all communities, and that American colleges and universities collectively and individually are strengthened by diversity in campus populations.

This portion of the AAHE statement on diversity conveys acceptance of diversity accountability as well as responsibility. Although the following description of diversity in the workplace does not provide for specific action, it does convey a diversity responsibility tone:

> [Diversity] is much more than a matter of race and gender. Diversity in its fullest sense involves a broad range of human uniqueness: personality, work style, perception and attitudes, values and lifestyle, work ethic, world view, communication style, and much more. Valuing diversity means appreciating and encouraging people to be who they really are, helping them to develop their full potential, and utilizing their special talents, skills, ideas, and creativity. (Hatler & Schmidt, 1997, p. vi)

It is significant that AAHE admonishes that statements alone, however compelling, are rarely sufficient to bring about systemic change.

NCATE-accredited education units are redesigning teacher education programs to reflect the performance of teacher education candidates. Most institutions have accepted the accountability challenge regarding diversity and are working to gather evidence to demonstrate that they meet Standard 4. Institutions will have to ensure a balance between measurement of diversity actions and moral (responsibility) actions. Some institutions are moving gracefully from the previous NCATE diversity requirements to fulfill the expectations of Standard 4.

It is clear that diversity can be viewed in the concrete or in the abstract and can form an illusion that it exists when it does not. The NCATE 2000 language on accountability and responsibility is clear, but institutions must make meaningful changes and provide evidence of such changes

based on their teacher education conceptual framework and institutional climate. Balancing accountability with responsibility is critical.

Conclusion: NCATE Board of Examiners and Unit Accreditation Board–To Accredit or Not to Accredit?

The NCATE Board of Examiners and Unit Accreditation Board have an enormous task as they work to address evidence and reports that accredit or deny accreditation to approximately 500 teacher education programs across the country. Diversity is a central aspect of the performance-based accreditation system. NCATE (2002) has defined this system as "a practice in accreditation that makes use of assessment information describing candidate proficiencies or actions of professional education units as evidence for determining whether professional standards are met or not met" (p. 55). It contrasts with accreditation decisions based solely on course offerings, program experiences, and inputs as the evidence for judging attainment of professional standards.

Teacher education units did not lose accreditation because of diversity standards or criteria before NCATE 2000. In the past, units have received notice of identified "weaknesses" regarding diversity, and even that identification process has been fluid, based on whether or not the unit submitted a diversity plan. Depending on the Board of Examiners team, it has been possible for units to receive a mildly stated notice of diversity weakness, even without a diversity plan on file. As noted, NCATE (2002) has now stated that to be accredited, units must meet each of the six standards (pp. 45, 46). Time will tell how rigorously the diversity standard is enforced. The bottom line is that the profession will have to take a stand on diversity and accreditation.

Issues raised by the following questions must be addressed in terms of accountability and responsibility:

- How can teacher education institutions provide balance in addressing accountability measures and at the same time address responsibility issues?
- What type of evidence can be used?
- Will evidence be used appropriately by accreditation decision makers?
- Will decisions be fluid or consistent from one teacher education program to another?
- Are Board of Examiners team members seeing evidence of a commitment to diversity or merely evidence compiled to show compliance with the standard?

- How does NCATE ensure that Board of Examiners team members are committed to diversity?
- When is a unit committed to diversity and when is it not?
- Has the unit provided evidence to illustrate real diversity accountability?
- Has the unit demonstrated responsibility regarding diversity?

Teacher education programs must meet the challenge of balance in addressing accountability and responsibility as related to diversity. NCATE and the Unit Accreditation Board will have to maintain consistency and rigor in applying the NCATE 2000 diversity standards and assessing evidence and actions regarding accountability and responsibility. Ensuring that all children's educational needs are met is critical. We cannot afford to allow diversity to be characterized by "now you see it, now you don't."

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4

EXAMINING INTASC STANDARDS THROUGH THE LENS OF MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION: MEETING THE NEEDS OF UNDERSERVED STUDENTS

Norvella P. Carter and Patricia J. Larke, Texas A&M University

National standards have been part of the discourse on school reform for many decades. Standards and assessments have been used as a guide for upgrading curricula, raising student achievement, and improving teacher performance in schools. There is much debate about standards, but in general, most view standards as a flag to rally around, a goal to be met, or a description of proficiency levels to be reached (Noddings, 1997). The idea that standards can bring about reform in teachers' performance is prevalent (Clune, 1993; Darling-Hammond, 1994; Sykes & Plastrik, 1993). An example of this idea is imbedded in the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC), which promotes standards-based reform for beginning teachers.

A review of standards, including INTASC standards, through the lens of multicultural education reveals minimal attention to issues of equity, which plays out in children's being underserved in their schooling experience. When issues about equity are raised, they are addressed by including language in the standards that make a commitment to high standards for all learners. The standards do not, however, call attention to teachers whose sociocultural, linguistic, and economic backgrounds are different from their students, nor do they address the ramifications of these factors. The standards do not call attention to the quality of credentials of teachers who teach in urban schools and of those who teach in well-funded suburban schools. For example, students in urban schools are more likely to be taught by teachers with less experience and fewer qualifications than suburban teachers (Banks & Banks, 2001; Darling-Hammond, 1994). The standards do not call attention to the tracking systems in which students of color and low-income students are disproportionately placed in vocational tracks. They do not call attention to students who do not take Advanced Placement classes or courses such as calculus in high school (Oakes, 1990).

The context of schooling is mentioned rarely in national standards, and principles are usually written as though access to knowledge, funding, and other resources is equal for all. In many instances, the complex nature of schools and students is not recognized or acknowledged. Kozol (1991) in *Savage Inequalities* describes a school setting that offered a computer course but did not have computers for students. Although his book is more than a decade old, the stories are still applicable today.

As this chapter identifies and focuses on INTASC standards, the context of schooling is raised. The overall purposes of the chapter are to examine the INTASC standards through the lens of multicultural education and to analyze the implications of the INTASC standards as they relate to meeting the needs of underserved students.

INTASC Standards

INTASC was established in 1987; its primary constituency is state education agencies responsible for teacher licensing and professional development. INTASC promotes standards-based reform through the development of model standards and assessments for beginning teachers. INTASC is a consortium of state education agencies, higher education institutions, and national educational organizations that state their dedication to the reform of education, licensing, and the ongoing professional development of teachers (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1999). The model standards comprise 10 principles, each of which has three components: knowledge base, dispositions, and performance. The standards' focus ranges from developing a knowledge base to working effectively in community environments:

- Principle 1: The teacher understands the central concepts, tools of inquiry, and structures of the disciplines(s) he or she teaches and can create learning experiences that make these aspects of subject matter meaningful for students.
- Principle 2: The teacher understands how children learn and develop and can provide learning opportunities that support their intellectual, social, and personal development.
- Principle 3: The teacher understands how students differ in their approaches to learning and creates instructional opportunities that are adapted to diverse learners.
- Principle 4: The teacher understands and uses a variety of instructional strategies to encourage students' development of critical thinking, problem solving, and performance skills.

- Principle 5: The teacher uses an understanding of individual and group motivation and behavior to create a learning environment that encourages positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self-motivation.
- Principle 6: The teacher uses knowledge of effective verbal, nonverbal, and media communication techniques to foster active inquiry, collaboration, and supportive interaction in the classroom.
- Principle 7: The teacher plans instruction based on knowledge of subject matter, students, the community, and curricular goals.
- Principle 8: The teacher understands and uses formal and informal assessment strategies to evaluate and ensure the continuous intellectual, social, and physical development of the learner.
- Principle 9: The teacher is a reflective practitioner who continually evaluates the effects of his/her choices and actions on others (students, parents, and other professionals in the learning community) and actively seeks out opportunities to grow professionally.
- Principle 10: The teacher fosters relationships with school colleagues, parents, and agencies in the larger community to support students' learning and well-being.

According to its mission statement, INTASC seeks to provide a vehicle for member states to work jointly on formulating model policies to reform teacher preparation and licensing and to collaborate to design new instruments to assess the classroom performance of a teacher. INTASC states that its work is guided by the premise that "an effective teacher must be able to integrate content knowledge with pedagogical understanding to assure that all students learn and perform at high levels" (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1999, ¶ 1). Currently, 32 states and one territory are members of INTASC.[1] As more and more states join the movement, it becomes increasingly important to examine INTASC standards through the lens of multicultural education.

Using the Multicultural Education Lens to Examine INTASC Standards

The examination of INTASC standards from a multicultural standpoint is critical if the standards are to promote quality and equitable education

1. The members of INTASC are Alabama, Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Hawaii, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Puerto Rico, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, and Wisconsin.

for all children. Before the needs are identified and discussed, however, the field of multicultural education will be explored as it sets the conceptual framework to examine the standards.

Contrary to popular belief, the discipline of multicultural education has existed for more than 100 years (Gay, 2000; Grant, 1995; Mills, 1983). Although the phrase *multicultural education* has proliferated in the literature within the past 50 years, the spirit of the discipline has chronicled the history of the United States since equity and social justice issues became integral components of schooling. Mills (1983) and other researchers state that multicultural education has evolved significantly and that within the past 25 years, there have been more research, scholarship, and scholars in the discipline (Banks & Banks, 2001; Gay, 2000).

An underlying premise of multicultural education has always included the orchestration of effective educational practices for all students. It is a discipline that embraces students' cultural, linguistic, ethnic, and economic diversity. In addition, it sets forth an understanding of the complexity of the sociocultural milieu of schools and society. Multicultural education reveals that "real" education of all children does not exist in a vacuum and that schools are microcosms of the larger society that historically and systematically promotes inequality.

To view standards from the perspective of multicultural education requires first and foremost that multicultural education be defined. Several leading scholars capture the definition. For example, the definitions of Grant, Mills, Bennett, and Nieto provide a solid framework for examining INTASC standards through this lens.

Grant (1994) states:

> Multicultural education is a philosophical concept and an educational process. . . . It is a concept built upon the philosophical ideals of freedom, justice, equality, equity and human dignity that are contained in the U.S. documents (Declaration of Independence). It recognizes . . . that equal access does not necessarily guarantee fairness. Multicultural education is a process that takes place in schools and other educational institutions and informs all academic curriculum. It prepares all students to work actively toward structural equality in the organizations and institutions of the [United States]. It helps students to develop positive self-concepts, and to discover who they are, particularly in terms of their multiple group membership. (p. 4)

He emphasizes that multicultural education achieves these ideals by providing knowledge about the history, culture, and contributions of the diverse groups that have shaped the history, politics, and culture of the United States. He believes that a school staff should be multiracial and

multiculturally literate and, if possible, fluent in more than one language. These goals can be accomplished by providing instruction in a context that is familiar to students and by building on students' diverse learning styles. This type of process cannot be abbreviated, meaning that all components of its definitions must be in place for multicultural education to be genuine and valuable.

Mills (1983) reiterates many of the same concepts of multicultural education as a philosophy and a process in her definition:

> Multicultural education means a philosophy and a process by which schools demonstrate through staffing patterns, curricula, instructional practices and school-community relations acceptance and respect for human diversity as a means of providing all children an equitable quality education in preparation for living in a culturally pluralistic society. It means that an education system must be cognizant of more than the skin colors, backgrounds and religious beliefs of people. Rather they must educate to eliminate classism, racism, sexism, ageism, handicappism—and the more recently recognized ill, uglyism. (p. 45)

Nieto's definition (2000) of multicultural education states:

> Multicultural education is a process of comprehensive school reform and basic education for all students. It challenges and rejects racism and other forms of discrimination in schools and society and accepts and affirms the pluralism (ethnic, racial, linguistic, religious, economic, gender, among others) that students, their communities and teachers reflect. [It] permeates the curriculum and instructional strategies used in schools as well as the interactions among teachers, students and families and the very way that schools conceptualize the nature of teaching and learning. Because it uses critical pedagogy as its underlying philosophy and focuses on knowledge, reflection and action (praxis) as the basis of social change, multicultural education furthers the democratic principles of social justice. (p. 305)

Bennett (1995) uses many of the same concepts to define multicultural education: "Multicultural education is an approach to teaching and learning that is based on the democratic values and beliefs and seeks to foster cultural pluralism within culturally diverse societies at national and international levels" (p. 11). Within her definition are four dimensions of multicultural education: movement, curriculum approaches, process, and commitment. According to Bennett (1995), (a) movement is achieving equality and equity; (b) curriculum approaches are ways of developing history, knowledge, and understanding of others; (c) process is a way that a person becomes multicultural; and (d) commitment is an action to combat discrimination with the development of appropriate skills and attitudes.

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Several recurring words are present in the definition: Multicultural education is a *philosophy* (a way of thinking) and a *process* (a way of doing) and a *reform movement.* It is embedded in the definitions of a responsive action and promotes systemic changes to improve educational outcomes for all students. This action includes understanding the historic roles of the deficit model, hegemony, and the hidden curriculum while supporting the concepts of empowerment, culturally responsive pedagogy, and the power of caring. The driving force behind INTASC standards is a set of guidelines to assess the preparedness of beginning teachers so they understand and employ skills that include issues in the aforementioned statement. Multicultural education overwhelmingly supports the role of competent and effective teachers as it relates to the quality of education that students receive (Gollnick & Chinn, 1998).

Although many schools that educate underserved children may lack financial and physical resources, resilient teachers continue to systematically embrace the tenants of high expectations in their attitudes, behaviors, and actions. In addition, they employ strategies that enable students to achieve high academic performance. When INTASC standards employ the concepts of multicultural education, conscientious efforts are made on behalf of teachers and their evaluators to have the knowledge base (the will and skill) to exemplify the intent of the standards. The alignment of INTASC standards with the tenets of multicultural education can greatly enhance the education of all children while empowering the educational system to be more responsive to its fundamental purpose.

The Implications of INTASC Standards: Meeting the Needs of Underserved Students by Moving Words Into Actions

As more and more states join the INTASC movement, some educators remain skeptical of the power of standards to transform schools and teacher preparation programs in meaningful ways for traditionally underserved students (Banks, 1997; Darling-Hammond, 1994; Ladson-Billings, 1994). Students who are culturally, linguistically, ethnically, and economically diverse continue to form massive percentages of underserved students in our nation (Pang, 2001). Failure in school is a reality for underserved students, particularly African American, Hispanic, Native American, and poor students, and it is well documented in the literature (Apple, 1996; Banks & Banks, 2001; Diaz, 2001; Gollnick & Chinn, 1998; Irvine & Armento, 2001; Nieto, 2000).

The overall context of beginning teachers is significant when analyzing the implications of the INTASC standards for meeting the needs of

underserved students. Beginning teachers often find the transition from preservice to inservice teaching traumatic and overwhelming (Good & Brophy, 2000). Often, the idealism they brought from their education program at the university does not match the day-to-day realities of teaching. For example, a teacher may engage in the student teaching process in a suburban, homogeneous community but accept a position as a teacher in an urban and/or heterogeneous community. Therefore, various demographics as related to students and teachers emerge as important factors in the context of beginning teachers.

The demographics of school populations have made major shifts. For example, Americans of European descent made up 73% of the nation's student population in 1982, whereas since 1990, the 25 largest school districts have had a minority White population. In addition to the largest school districts, states such as California, Texas, and New Mexico have a school-age population in which children of color are the majority (Carter & Larke, 1995). In 20 of the nation's largest urban public school systems, African Americans, Hispanics, Asians, and Native Americans represent 70% of the student population (Irvine & Armento, 2001). These numbers are expected to increase in cities such as Chicago, Los Angeles, New York, Seattle, San Francisco, Dallas, Houston, and Washington, DC, where, again, half or more of public school students are children of color. Demographic data confirm that by 2020, approximately 48% of the nation's school-age population will be students of color (Banks & Banks, 2001). In addition, the population of the nation's schools is becoming increasingly low income. The number of children in poverty is growing in the United States, a trend that is expected to continue. The percentage of children in poverty increased from 14.9% in 1970 to 21.1% in 1991 (Estrada, 1993). Since 1998, about one of every five children below the age of 18 lives below the poverty level set during that year (Banks & Banks, 2001; U.S. Census Bureau, 1998).

In contrast, the overwhelming majority of public and private school teachers are White (and will continue to be so), and more than 80% of preservice teachers are White, middle-class, monolingual females (Irvine & Armento, 2001). To say that White teachers are not effective is an erroneous statement, but what research finds is that, traditionally, the majority of White teachers and teachers of color do not have the knowledge base, attitudes, and skills to use multicultural practices in their classroom (Diaz, 2001; Ladson-Billings, 1994). The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (1995) states that preservice teachers are unfamiliar with the backgrounds and cultural experiences of their diverse

students—often because multicultural education courses are isolated and fragmented from mainstream courses in teacher preparation programs.

This dynamic has major implications for INTASC standards. For example, in Principle 1, how can teachers create learning experiences that make aspects of subject matter meaningful for students if they do not know enough about their students' background and culture to know what is meaningful to them? In Principle 2, how can teachers use students' strengths as a basis for growth if they do not recognize strength when it is present?

This chapter discusses several tenets of multicultural education as they relate to INTASC standards: culturally responsive pedagogy and teaching, teacher efficacy and the deficit model, hegemonic behaviors, and learning styles and constructivism.

Culturally Responsive Pedagogy and Teaching

Culturally responsive pedagogy is a major concept in multicultural education that stresses the ability of teachers to respond to their students by incorporating elements of students' culture in their teaching (Irvine & Armento, 2001). Gay (2000) defines *culturally responsive teaching* as using the cultural knowledge, prior experience, frames of reference, and performance styles of ethnically diverse students to make learning encounters more relevant (p. 29). Culturally responsive teaching includes the following characteristics:

- It acknowledges the legitimacy of the cultural heritages of different ethnic groups as legacies that affect students' dispositions, attitudes, and approaches to learning as worthy content to be taught in the formal curriculum.
- It builds bridges of meaningfulness between home and school experiences as well as between academic abstractions and lived sociocultural realities.
- It uses a wide variety of instructional strategies that are connected to different learning styles.
- It teaches students to know and praise their own and each others' cultural heritages.
- It incorporates multicultural information, resources, and materials in all the subjects and skills routinely taught in schools.

The language of INTASC standards and performance indicators is compatible with culturally responsive pedagogy and teaching (Irvine & Armento, 2001), but often, teachers who graduate from traditional colleges and universities are not being prepared to meet the standards in

reality (Carter & Larke, 1995). The literature promotes culturally responsive teaching as a vehicle for success (Delpit, 1995). A strategy that can move standards from words to action is the development of a knowledge base in culturally responsive teaching.

Smith (1998, p. 25) promotes culturally responsive teaching through the knowledge of multicultural education, which introduces beginning teachers to

1. Key terms that constitute the concepts and language of diversity, such as *cultural pluralism, assimilation, culture, racism, classism, sexism, learning styles,* and *inclusion*
2. Principles and philosophical tenets of multicultural education, such as *differences are not deficits* and *culture influences the way students go about learning*
3. Commonly known models of multicultural education curriculum infusion, such as those described by Banks and Banks (2001) and by Sleeter and Grant (1994)
4. The literature of theory and research that undergirds multicultural education as an academic discipline

Results of numerous studies have found that teachers must have a strong background in multicultural education if they are going to engage in culturally responsive teaching (Carter & Larke, 1995; Nieto, 2000; Smith, 1998).

Teacher Efficacy and the Deficit Model

Another area that has major implications for INTASC standards and is a tenet of multicultural education is teacher efficacy. A review of research associated with teacher efficacy reveals that the trait has been highly associated with teachers who are successful with traditionally underserved students.

Some say that teacher efficacy has to do with the extent to which a teacher believes he or she can actually teach the children and make a difference in their lives (Bandura, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Other researchers state that teacher efficacy relates to a teacher's belief that students in his or her classroom can learn and that he or she can teach them (Bandura, 2001). Efficacy and expectations are characteristics of teachers that have been consistently related to student achievement, particularly with students in diverse classrooms (Bennett, 1995; Nieto, 2000). Research has revealed that teachers who are highly efficacious have a sense of well-being and tend to stay longer in the profession (Carter, Moon-Merchant, & Simpson, 2002).

Teacher efficacy has major implications for all INTASC standards, particularly Principle 3, which deals specifically with diversity issues. For example, how can teachers persist in helping all children achieve success if they do not believe all children can learn? With regard to Principle 4, how can teachers value and use reciprocity in the teaching process if they do not believe students can actually learn in their classroom?

Many beginning teachers have been trained in the deficit model and have a low sense of efficacy as a teacher of underserved students. The *deficit model* refers to the assumption that some students, because of genetic, cultural, or experiential differences, are operating with a "deficit" and are inferior to other children (Nieto, 2000). Teachers in most cases have been trained to identify their students' weaknesses to develop an instructional plan. Often, teachers view students who live in poverty, come from homes with problems, and/or live in communities with social ills (neighborhoods noted for gangs, drugs, etc.) as possessing deficits that cannot be overcome in the classroom.

The deficit model has an impact on teachers' expectations for students, and more important, it influences teachers' sense of efficacy about learning. Teacher efficacy is intricately tied to the teacher's belief system about students and the learning process. The deficit model paralyzes many teachers because they believe that circumstances in the student's life prevent learning. Teachers who believe that factors beyond their control cause student outcomes have low efficacy.

Such teachers believe that their own effort makes little difference and that the situational factors in the lives of students will cause success or failure in the classroom. If situational factors are favorable, meaning the students come from two-parent homes, display middle-class values, and live in neighborhoods that reflect middle-class incomes or better, then success will follow. If situational factors are not favorable—that is, students come from one-parent families and live in poverty-stricken neighborhoods—failure is inevitable. Ultimately, the teacher with low efficacy will not take responsibility for teaching all children.

It is imperative that teachers shed the deficit model and begin to embrace models of resilience that build on the strengths of students and focus on high expectations for all learners. Teachers who possess a high sense of efficacy believe that effort, rather than factors outside the classroom, causes outcomes. The efficacious teacher believes that trying hard will bring success and that those teachers who do not try hard will fail. They take full responsibility for teaching all learners in their classrooms. Teachers and schools cannot alleviate poverty and other social ills that

some students face every day. To move from words to action, it is necessary to address the challenges they can resolve in the form of policies, practices, and provisions for educational environments that encourage all students to learn to the best of their ability (Nieto, 2000).

Hegemonic Behaviors

INTASC Principle 6 states that teachers should use "knowledge of effective verbal, nonverbal, and media communication techniques to foster active inquiry, collaboration, and supportive interaction in the classroom." It is difficult to be effective in this area if one has not studied hegemonic behavior.

> The [word] hegemony refers to a process in which dominant groups in society come together to form a bloc and sustain leadership over subordinate groups. One of the most important elements that such an idea implies is that a power bloc does not have to rely on coercion. . . . The key . . . is that such groups feel as if their concerns are being listened to . . . but without dominant groups having to give up their leadership of general social tendencies. (Apple, 1996, pp. 14-15)

Students may be in a situation in which they know they have been devalued or handed an injustice but cannot identify it because all the rules have been followed and they appear to be in an environment of social justice. For example, a teacher might say that he or she is using and teaching democratic practices in the classroom. To demonstrate the democratic process, the teacher calls on all the students to voice an opinion. The student will say that, yes, the teacher is using democratic principles, because all students have been given an opportunity to voice their opinions.

The hegemonic behavior may be difficult to see, but it can be felt by the students if the teacher validates the contributions of some children, but not others. The children who are validated have values and verbal or other communication styles that the teacher appreciates. In most cases, children who are not validated do not have values or communication styles that are similar to their teacher's. The students are led to believe that their participation is important when, in actuality, it is not valued. The irony of this practice is that students consent to a behavior that devalues them as students. It is important to discern that the teacher gives voice to all children but does not value and validate the contributions of all children. Often, a teacher gives nonverbal encouragement to students who are closest to his or her own culture to reinforce the dominant culture. Sometimes, a teacher tactfully selects the responses that are most in line with mainstream values as "correct."

Hegemonic behavior in the classroom is very subtle yet very powerful, because it allows participation but does not empower students. It is analogous to the citizen who is allowed to vote but whose vote does not count. Hegemonic behavior is typical of teachers who lack a knowledge base and, at times, the will to fully understand the needs of various ethnic groups. The consequence of hegemonic behavior in the classroom is that it contributes to low expectations, with both the teacher and the student consenting to the practice. Students who have been devalued tend to believe that only a few classmates are smart: those whose contributions the teacher consistently validates.

Therefore, hegemonic behaviors create self-fulfilling prophecies of failure for students and give consent to the teacher to continue the practice. Unless these issues are pointed out in assessment and evaluation, the teacher's behavior will proliferate and become mainstream practice. Again, the irony of hegemonic behavior is that it keeps the practice going through consensual means.

Learning Styles and Constructivism

A learning style is a process one habitually uses for cognitive problem solving and for showing what one knows and is capable of doing.

> Learning style is that consistent pattern of behavior and performance by which an individual approaches educational experiences. . . . It is formed in the deep structure of the neural organization and personality [that] molds and is molded by human development and the cultural experiences of home, school, and society. (Keefe & Languis, 1983, p. 1)

In a classic study by Ramirez and Castaneda (1974), field-independent and field-sensitive students had several advantages and disadvantages in the classroom. *Field independence* refers to the learning style of individuals usually found in mainstream, middle-class, White Americans. The field-independent learner is individualistic and good at abstract analytic thought, has keen perception of discrete parts, favors inquiry, prefers independent study, and is very task oriented. Educators favor students with this learning style, which is reflected in most successes of field-independent learners in schools.

The field-sensitive learner, in contrast, prefers to work in groups, is highly sensitive and attuned to the social environment, has good global perception, and favors a spectator approach. Cultures that are diverse from the mainstream produce students who are predominantly field sensitive in their learning styles. Many of these students feel like failures in school, because educators do not meet their needs. Most schools and tests

tend to be geared to field-independent learners (Bennett, 1995; Gollnick & Chinn, 1998).

It is important to encourage students to take the initiative in their learning and discuss with them the styles in which they learn best. Do students prefer to work alone or in groups? Do students prefer a lecture approach, a hands-on experimental approach, or a combination of both? It is important for teachers to study field-sensitive learners and to understand that objectives and global aspects of curriculum should be carefully explained. Concepts should be presented in humanized or story format, and students' personal interests and experiences should be incorporated. Hands-on experience is vital but should be incorporated after there has been guidance and a demonstration from the teacher. INTASC standards display supportive language for these concepts, but what happens in actual classroom settings?

INTASC standards are compatible with constructivism, which means that students are active, exploratory, hands-on learners who play a major role in constructing their own knowledge (Nelson-Barber & Estrin, 1995). Prior knowledge plays a strong role, because learning is viewed as something that takes place as a result of an interaction between what students bring to a task or setting and what they encounter (Cobb, 1994). The students "construct" knowledge based on their past experiences, what they want to learn, and the manner in which the new knowledge is taught to them. The one-way transmission model of the teacher imparting knowledge to students is contrary to the constructivist conceptualization of learning. The student's knowledge base and personal experiences become key factors in the learning process.

Field-sensitive students, for example, must be taught to conceptualize abstract representations and relate them to real objects, actions, and experiences. Research suggests that bilingual individuals can move back and forth between global and analytical orientations better than people who speak only one language (Banks & Banks, 2001). Students can learn to construct their own understanding, but it will be filtered through their specific cultural experiences. It is important for educators to realize that a person's culture does affect the way knowledge is perceived and that a person's worldview serves as a basis for what a person can accept as knowledge worth learning. The challenge is putting the language of constructivism into practice.

Conclusion

Visible evidence exists that INTASC standards are filled with words that use the language of multicultural education; however, in the process of moving standards from words to action, the political and economic link between schools and society must be acknowledged. In addition, teacher preparation programs and school evaluators have a responsibility to assist beginning teachers in meeting the standards. Teachers cannot teach what they do not know—and how can they know, if teacher education programs and evaluators do not know how to evaluate the standards through the lens of multicultural education?

Of course, multicultural education is not the panacea for evaluating standards, but its work is highly acclaimed in responding to the needs of underserved children. Standards groups such as INTASC should develop policies and actions that will lead to access to knowledge and resources for students who have been underserved. INTASC standards have great potential, but unless there are plans, procedures, monitoring, and evaluation, these standards will become nothing more than words on paper. Educators know what to do for underserved children but sadly have failed to do what is necessary in multiple arenas. In the final analysis, INTASC standards should provide another way to help us, as educators, do what we do best—to try to educate all children, from the underserved to the served.

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5

DIVERSE PRACTITIONERS AND DIVERSE STUDENT POPULATIONS: OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES IN THE ALIGNMENT OF NATIONAL STANDARDS

Deneese L. Jones, University of Kentucky

The standards movement is arguably a major force in educational preparation today. National standards have become equated, at least in peoples' minds, with excellence. Yet in most applications, standards are not about excellence. In fact, the defined term *standards,* when used by regulatory bodies, instead signifies adequacy. Critical to this understanding is a recognition that practices such as multicultural education, culturally responsive pedagogy, inclusive education, bilingual programs, and magnet schools are contributing to the challenges and opportunities of the rich diversity of U.S. schools. Upon examination of these issues, several questions provoke our thinking. Is alignment monolithic, or does it provide more opportunities for diverse practice and inclusion of diverse practitioners? How can inclusive interpretation of standards and their alignment be explicit? How can inclusive principles gain academic and political support in an anti-affirmative-action environment? What are the responses to critics and critiques?

Indeed, standards cannot be a one-size-fits-all approach to education, and educators are experiencing almost relentless pressure to show their own effectiveness. For those who believe the standards rhetoric, success means achieving despite the system and its broken promises, and sometimes because of personal, cultural, and social affluence. Unfortunately, these types of success, the kinds of success that are measured by a set of static standards, have already excluded many. Hence, this chapter explores the opportunities and challenges in the alignment of national standards related to diverse practitioners.

Opportunities and Challenges for Diverse Practitioners in Recruitment

School districts in the United States need thousands of new teachers each year. In elementary schools, mandates for reducing class size have created a widespread demand for teachers, particularly in urban schools that serve

students from diverse families where many are below the poverty line. Further, by 2005, teacher retirements will create many more teaching vacancies (Nagel & Peterson, 2001). True dilemmas will persist as colleges and universities grapple with diversity issues. Projections continue to indicate that the traditional-aged, White, middle- and upper-class college population is shrinking and being replaced by a student pool that is more diverse across virtually every demographic category. Institutions know that they must either accept these new students or downsize dramatically. Forward thinking and corrective action is imperative for a variety of reasons.

Without a doubt, we are living in a nation of unrealized diversity. Given the changing demographics and the "browning" of the nation, issues of diversity must take center stage in whatever is being discussed, written, or taught in education. With the large increase in the number of children of color in U.S. public schools, the need for diverse teachers has never been more pressing. Thus, the area of standards, too, must be considered from diverse perspectives that provide opportunities for diverse practices and practitioners. National and local policies for standards that have begun and are to continue will critically affect the recruitment and retention of a diverse educator population and are tantamount to the well-being of a democratic society (Jones, 1994). As the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy noted in 1986, the decline in the number of diverse educators has adverse effects on all students, majority as well as minority.

> The race and background of their teachers tells them something about authority and power in contemporary America. These messages influence children's attitudes and their own views as well as the view of others' intrinsic worth. The views they form in school about justice and fairness also influence their future citizenship. (p. 79)

Poverty and educational inequities facing today's children of color, especially those in urban settings, are arguably the most profound causes of the shortage of diverse teachers. Recent efforts to improve the U.S. teacher corps have focused on implementing stricter standards instead of addressing problems of equity and diversity. Such standards may be misguided, because public schools need diverse teachers who are role models for young people in our increasingly diverse society (Jorgenson, 2001). Constructive interaction between culturally diverse teachers and White and ethnically diverse students teaches young people to celebrate differences and breaks down negative stereotypes (West, 1994). If, through the absence of diverse teacher role models, children form a distorted vision of

authority in our country, cultural isolation will bring to our schools "unparalleled racial, linguistic, economic, and social conflicts, and as a result the nation as a whole will suffer" (Castro & Ingle, 1991, p. 1).

Clearly, new teachers whose own education has been satisfactory but not excellent do not have the full background of content knowledge at their fingertips. Teachers whose language background is not English may have difficulty passing the standardized tests. Many are the first in their families to graduate from college. And those who do not have the time to study thoroughly are not successful. Nobody is advocating for incompetent teachers in the classroom, but the teacher tests and national standards may not always be the best way to tell who is competent. Herein lies an opportunity for diversity in teacher education.

Many emergency teachers can succeed at teaching despite their inability to pass a licensure test. Principals and colleagues report that some such teachers prepare interesting lessons for their students. Putting candidates in a classroom and evaluating them is a better way to determine competence. In fact, critics advocate that we take some steps to assess prospective teachers more equitably. For those who believe standards are the key to effective teaching practice, we argue that we can keep high standards while we use multiple measures to evaluate teacher candidates (Scherer, 2001).

Guides to the practice of quality assessment demonstrate that we should look beyond standardized tests scores and artificial standards. Excellence on four out of five measures, for example, is possible and reasonable. The use of authentic measures such as videos and audiotapes of teaching, student responses in content areas, visits by independent assessors, complex portfolios that include reflection and subject matter components, and written assessments by peers and principals can provide insight into the appropriateness of alternative standards for performance assessments.

Interpretation of Standards and Their Alignment for Diverse Students

Throughout the 1990s, critical shifts occurred in the ways schooling was perceived. From these perceptions have evolved interpretations of standards and their alignment. Discourse during the 1980s (which ignored institutional characteristics of school systems) turned to policy talk and action during the 1990s accompanied by the increased use of standardized tests for certification to teach (Weiner, 2000). Systemic change became a key policy tenet, although its meaning was imprecise and seemed

to change with time (Carr, 1997). The approach to change was thought to be through interrelationships and interdependencies among the parts of the educational system and its community. It was supposed to involve poor and ethnically diverse parents in decisions about their children's learning (Comer, 1975, 1987; Davies, 1987) in areas where they had never been well served by urban schools.

The rapid change in the operational definition of systemic reform was a bipartisan consensus that students had to master "higher standards" for their personal well-being as well as for the national good. The assumptions were thought to combine bottom-up and top-down strategies for reform, but a number of researchers contradict this analysis by observing that pressure for national standards did not emanate from "a powerful national movement" but was instead a "professional and politicians' reform" (Cohen, 1995a, p. 753). In fact, Carr's review of the literature (1997) concludes that such changes most often left current power systems—as well as peoples' roles—unchanged.

Later suppositions that teaching and learning are influenced by the conditions in schools that transcend the classroom and the individual teacher's skills and knowledge were accompanied by commitment to "alignment" of local, state, and federal policies. Alignment, in turn, most often was linked to mastery of national standards and the "much more challenging instruction for all students" called for by national standards (Cohen, 1995b, p. 14). But after 10 years, alignment made the parents' role in reform marginal to the extent they were "often viewed as impediments to the reform movement" (Peressini, 1996, p. 8).

Leaders from educational organizations, including those representing national associations of institutions of teacher education and teachers, endorsed the reform agenda of systemic reform and national standards with a striking uniformity (Fullan, 1997). For reformers concerned about urban schools, one of the most powerful reasons to support national standards and testing seemed to be that all students in all schools, including inner-city students, would finally be held to high expectations of academic achievement by the schools. They argued for linkage of money traditionally set aside for remedial education (Title I) to national standards so that educational benefits for the advantaged were tied to educational benefits for the disadvantaged (Ball, Cohen, Peterson, & Wilson, 1994). For those who believed in standards, therein was a potential to spark improvement in schools serving ethnically and socioeconomically diverse students.

A possible reason that national standards were so appealing to so many was the underlying assumption that school practices of tracking and ability grouping resulted in highly disproportionate numbers of students of color placed in low-ability classes and special education. As a result of their placements, these students were cut off from the prospect of receiving intellectually stimulating material or attending college (Oakes, 1990). And given middle-class parents' resistance to detracking, national standards seemed the only method left to accomplish nationally what reformers had been unable to do in urban school districts: eliminate the differentiated curricula that led to inequitable educational opportunity.

One common thread for the support of reform and national standards was a recurring theme that technology and globalization had created changes in the nature of work that were irresistible. Yet there seemed to be no consensus on what these changes were beyond the understanding that they called for more and better education. One of the few researchers who questioned the economic assumptions on which reforms and national standards were being made was Henry Levin. He observed that the relationship between education and the economy was the least analyzed aspect of standards. Levin argued that although there was no doubt that education generally is an important determinant of earning power, there is a great leap between this fact and the idea that educational performance standards for students will lead to greater economic productivity (Levin, 2001).

These days, if a school's standardized test scores are high, people think the school's staff is effective. If a school's standardized test scores are low, they see the school's staff as ineffective. However, using only one type of yardstick is unlikely to accurately measure educational quality. The current wisdom about education practice demonstrates that we are wise to depend on multiple types of measures. Evaluation is "not by tests alone" (Scherer, 2001, p. 9). Unfortunately, we are inconsistent about what we know is effective for our students and what we demand of the adults who will serve them.

Perhaps at no other time has there been more discussion, thinking, and tension about issues in equitable education than there is now with the interpretation of standards and their alignment for all students. Of major concern is the question of how to value and structure classroom teaching and learning in light of the challenges to establish teaching standards that are inclusive of students' social and cultural diversity.

Academic and Political Support for National Standards

A noteworthy problem with most research on preparing teachers for diversity has been an absence of analysis and discussion of how political and economic conditions influence the academy relative to teaching, teachers, and teacher educators. For example, although funding for research on urban school reform and teacher preparation was sparked by the civil rights movement's agitation for equal opportunity for African Americans, this fact was hardly noted in scholarship of the 1960s and 1970s. Yet it is critical for understanding the issues of standards in the 21st century.

A significant development in the decade was the shift in thinking about whether prospective teachers should be screened for admission to programs of teacher preparation on the basis of their attitude about teaching a culturally diverse student population. Programs adopting this perspective frequently used the scale developed by Haberman (1987). But well-prepared urban teachers who can apply research about teaching a culturally diverse student population may leave city schools to teach in suburbs where they will receive higher salaries, teach smaller classes, and endure less bureaucratic treatment.

Conclusion: What About the Critics and Critiques?

In response to the critics and critiques, insightful discussion must continue based on research that analyzes the impact of standards on the recruitment of diverse educators as well as the effect on diverse learners in the public school systems. In my line of work, I have come to value the fact that we do not react without critically examining the issues—which means we must explore the symptomatic behaviors, the causes and results of these same behaviors, what the intervention for these results should be, and what we desire to be the new results. Without this type of quantitative and qualitative research-based examination, the notion of standards and their ability to equalize educational practices becomes only an exercise in debate.

The demographic forecasts are clear. Previously underrepresented diverse groups will make up an increasingly large portion of the pool of American students while the pool of diverse educators is dwindling. In response, the banner of standards has been raised. The relationship between teaching and learning is being reexamined through a more powerful magnifying glass. As diversity becomes a more significant concern, attention inevitably needs to turn to how we can maximize the performance of all students in the classroom. Educators are called to set standards that take this information into account. Institutions of higher

education and teacher preparation programs are faced with mammoth challenges and opportunities. There is an urgent need to respond successfully to societal issues and demands, effectively meet the needs of an increasingly diverse student population at all levels, keep tabs on the burgeoning technology that surrounds us, and build a diverse, well-informed, and self-reflective faculty worthy of guiding the process into the increasing complexity of the 21st century. The system needs to determine accountability and reward structures that support and maintain an openness to change while encouraging the retooling of faculty as well as the transformation of curricula, development of assessment tools, and effective instruction for all students.

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6

DIVERSITY AND NBPTS CERTIFICATION: HIGHER EDUCATION AND STATE INITIATIVES

Nita A. Paris, Kennesaw State University
Gail Sherer, Georgia Professional Standards Commission
Yiping Wan, Kennesaw State University

In response to *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983), The Carnegie Task Force on Teaching (Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, 1986) called for the establishment of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS). The first NBPTS certificate area tests were offered in 1993. Since then, the influence of the NBPTS on teaching has grown immensely. At the same time, concerns about the board's certification process and its impact on diverse candidates have begun to emerge. This chapter provides an overview of the adverse impact of the NBPTS certification process specifically on African American candidates. In addition, it examines statewide and higher education support initiatives for African American candidates.

What We Know

As of 2002, state and/or school district incentives and recognition for teachers seeking national board certification exist in 48 states (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 2002). To date, more than 16,000 teachers have been certified, and the NBPTS has set an ambitious target of 100,000 teachers to achieve certification by 2006 (Castor, 2002). The NBPTS has influenced teacher education as well. At times, this impact has itself been considered "adverse." For example, Johnson (2001) refers to the NBPTS as "a force with which institutions of higher education must contend" (p. 70). Nevertheless, many higher education institutions view the board's standards favorably and are incorporating them into their teacher education programs. Nearly 250 higher education institutions nationwide are engaged in NBPTS-related activities (see Figure 6.1). Initiatives include but are not limited to aligning advanced and initial education programs with the standards, requiring portfolios that reflect the nature and focus of NBPTS portfolios as a part of degree

Figure 6.1. Summary of Higher Education Initiatives Regarding NBPTS

Exploring alignment of degree programs with national board standards	44%
Implementing degree programs aligned with national board standards	38%
Incorporating national board standards in courses	34%
Offering candidate support	41%
Conducting research related to national board standards and certification	10%

Note: Based on figures from the NBPTS Web site as of May 2002. Total number of institutions reporting = 248.

requirements, and providing workshops or support networks for candidates as they complete the certification process.

Many of these initiatives are being enacted voluntarily, while others may be the result of the influence from state governing boards for institutions of higher learning. For example, the Board of Regents for the University System of Georgia has adopted principles that require advanced teacher education programs in the state to be consistent with the core propositions of the NBPTS.

> Experienced teachers need advanced knowledge in their content field and they also need to deepen their understanding of teaching and learning so as to be prepared to seek National Board Certification, should they choose to do so. . . . All master's degree programs for teachers will be consistent with the five core propositions of accomplished teaching set by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards. (Board of Regents of the University System of Georgia, 2001, p. 5)

The mission of the NBPTS is in part to "establish high and rigorous standards for what accomplished teachers should know and be able to do [and] to develop and operate a national, voluntary system to assess and certify teachers who meet these standards" (NBPTS, 1999). As the influence of the national board on teaching and teacher education increases, concerns of equity and fairness in the certification process are emerging. In particular, the NBPTS assessment, which is performance based, has had an adverse impact on candidates of color. An assessment is said to exhibit adverse impact when examinees from a specified population are successful at a substantially lower percentage rate than a normative reference group (Bond, 1998). African American candidates certify at a rate of approximately 11%, while White candidates certify at a rate of slightly higher than 50% (Bond, 1998).

Exploring Adverse Impact

What are the reasons for the adverse impact of the NBPTS assessment on candidates of color? Fortunately, this complex issue has received increased attention in recent years. According to the NBPTS, assessments initially were found to have no sources of internal or external bias that could account for the adverse impact (Bond, 1998). These were initial findings, however, and to gain more understanding of adverse impact and other issues, the NBPTS called for research into its certification process and the impact that board-certified teachers have on student learning ("NBPTS Holds," 2002). As a result, 22 research proposals have been identified and funded through an independent review by the RAND Corporation. Three of these studies, at an expense of nearly $750,000, are designed to investigate factors associated with adverse impact of the NBPTS process on candidates of color.

These studies were prompted by inquiries outside the board as well. For example, Irvine and Fraser (1998) raised the question of whether or not the NBPTS recognizes and values the culturally responsive pedagogy employed by African American teachers. In reflections on her interactions with one student, a veteran African American teacher, whom Irvine and Fraser identify as a "warm demander," indicates she knows her student very well.

> You see, you've got to know these students and where they are coming from. . . . I know if I don't reach him, or if I retain him, I may lose him . . . early. That's what I'm here for, to give them opportunities—to get an education and the confidence . . . . When I look at these children, I see myself. I know what it is to grow up black. (p. 35)

In this vignette, the teacher indicates she knows the daily environmental influences that act on her students. Later, in her explanations of instructional decision making, she indicates she understands her student's motivation and prior knowledge of the topic of the lesson. She explains how each of these factors influences her response to students. Irvine and Fraser (1998) question whether the NBPTS process recognizes this type of culturally responsive teaching. When one examines the standards in each certificate area, it seems that culturally responsive and contextually appropriate teaching is expected of the candidate. For example, in the Early Adolescence/Science certification area (Standard I), accomplished teachers

> . . . identify their students as individual learners, then use this knowledge to help shape decisions in the classroom. . . . Practically everything about the student is relevant prior information. Teachers seek out an awareness

> and appreciation of each student's cultural, linguistic, and ethnic background, family setting and personal interests, needs, and goals to inform their practice. They find out, for example, who among their students may have . . . a special learning need; who enjoys tinkering with mechanical devices; who has a pet tarantula; who has been to an aquarium or tidepool with the family . . . . They design their lessons by considering how students of differing abilities, experiences, ethnicity, and habits of mind come to understand science. (NBPTS, 1998, p. 13)

The standards documents of the NBPTS seem to value the personally relevant, contextually grounded, culturally responsive teaching shown in Irvine and Fraser's vignette. From the perspective of what is stated in the standards documents, the NBPTS expects culturally responsive teaching from accomplished teachers. Nevertheless, candidates of color fail the assessments at substantially higher rates than White candidates. A mismatch seems to exist between what is stated in the standards and the reality of the certification process. Could this mismatch be attributed to the failure of NBPTS evaluators to recognize and value culturally responsive teaching?

Failure of the NBPTS evaluators to recognize culturally responsive pedagogy is only one possible reason for the adverse impact. Other possibilities have been suggested as well. Regardless of ethnicity, most candidates in the NBPTS process have exhibited difficulties with representing tacit knowledge, negotiating standards, acknowledging sampling logic, and using evidence. In addition, candidates have expressed apprehension about writing (Burroughs, Schwartz, & Hendricks-Lee, 2000). Although not specifically identified as sources of adverse impact for diverse candidates, two of these difficulties are of particular interest in light of previous research with African American candidates. Ifekwunigwe (2002) supports the notion that for diverse candidates, difficulty representing tacit knowledge and difficulty with, or apprehension about, the writing tasks could be contributing factors to the high failure rates. Burroughs (2001) argues that writing ability as well as attitude toward writing (Burroughs et al., 2000) is a strong determinant of a candidate's success with national board certification. He describes the assessment process as one in which the candidate is presented with a rhetorical situation to which arguments about one's teaching must be constructed and presented in writing. Considering the strong oral tradition of African American candidates, describing one's practice only through written expression may create an unintended obstacle for African American teachers who undertake the certification process.

Other reasons for adverse impact may include lack of resources or support during the certification process. Although previous research has suggested that the level and quality of support available to candidates was not a major factor in adverse impact (Bond, 1998), a closer examination of these findings is warranted. For instance, Bond reports that his findings are based on phone interviews with African American and European American candidates in similar certificate areas, with comparable years of experience and school locations. Matching candidates based on school location casts a different light on the findings. As a result, Bond simply provides evidence that within similarly located schools (urban, suburban, rural) with similarly qualified candidates, there exists no adverse impact. But he does not address the issue of candidates who teach in school districts (or schools) with limited financial resources and who do not have access to the same level or quality of support as candidates who teach in more affluent districts.

Structured interviews conducted with a teacher in residence at the Georgia Teacher Center revealed that the amount and quality of support for candidates is crucial in their certification. The interviewee, an African American board-certified teacher in the Middle Childhood/Generalist area, is a facilitator for other board candidates. When asked what kind of or how much support was available during the process, she gave the following response:

> At the time, my county did not offer support workshops. I took advantage of support workshops provided by [two professional teacher organizations]. I traveled 90 minutes to attend the meetings on Saturday, one way. If both organizations held meetings on the same Saturday, I would choose between the two. Some months, I was able to attend two Saturday meetings. The support that I received at these meetings was awesome! I would not have certified without their support. They helped us understand the process a lot better. They read our work and provided feedback. They also gave us tips on how to be successful candidates. (personal communication, April 14, 2002)

When asked to identify the part of the certification process that was most challenging and why, she responded:

> Understanding the directions was very difficult for me. I also had additional challenges because I did not begin the process until the middle of January. . . . I received my box in November, but I was so overwhelmed by the magnitude of directions and entries that I put it away. It wasn't until January that I had enough confidence to begin the process. (personal communication, April 14, 2002)

Clearly, candidate support was instrumental in this teacher's successful completion of the certification process.

Other, more intriguing and disturbing factors may be contributing to the adverse impact of the NBPTS certification process. Ifekwunigwe (2002) suggests that a stereotype threat (Steele, 1997) may exist with African American candidates and their attempts at national board certification. Further examination of Steele's research in this area provides a provocative suggestion to the possibility of stereotype threats.

> [A stereotype threat is] the strictly situational threat of negative stereotypes, the threat that does not depend on cuing an internalized anxiety or expectancy. It is cued by the mere recognition that a negative group stereotype could apply to oneself in a given situation. How threatening this recognition becomes depends on the person's identification with the stereotype-relevant domain. For the domain identified, the situational relevance of the stereotype is threatening because it threatens diminishment in a domain that is self-definitional. (Steele, 1997, p. 617)

For African American teachers attempting board certification, the knowledge that African American candidates are successful at much lower rates than White candidates may negatively influence their performance. From the perspective of Steele's work, stereotype threat may be more likely to impact veteran African American teachers, because they have been identified as the strongest, most effective teachers. According to Steele (1997), stereotype threat has its greatest effect on those group members who have confidence in their domain-related abilities, "those who have not internalized the group stereotype to the point of doubting their own ability and have thus remained identified with the domain" (p. 617). In other words, for those who define themselves by the domain (strong, effective teachers), the threat is greatest. For those who do not define themselves by the domain, the threat is weaker or nonexistent.

In summary, whether it is teaching style, writing tasks, failure of evaluators to recognize culturally responsive pedagogy, resource availability, stereotype threat, or other factors interacting, we know that adverse impact exists. We do not know, however, the mechanisms or interplay of these factors or the extent to which each may contribute. Nevertheless, it is important to provide support to diverse candidates based on the knowledge we have to date. The following section presents an overview of diverse candidate support initiatives provided by state and higher education institutions.

Support for Diverse Candidates by State Agencies: What One State Is Doing

State agencies and faculty at higher education institutions across the nation are engaged in a variety of activities related to the NBPTS process and candidate support. Some of these activities address the needs of all candidates, while other activities focus solely on the needs of candidates of color. This section examines support and higher education initiatives in one southern state.

In 1994, Georgia announced its first three teachers to achieve national board certification. Five years passed before Georgia had an African American teacher achieve the distinction. When the NBPTS announced the names of 310 additional Georgia educators who achieved certification in November 2001, the state's numbers nearly quadrupled to 423 board-certified teachers. Of that number, fewer than 3% were African American.

Support for the NBPTS in the state is strong. The Georgia Professional Standards Commission in the governor's Office of Planning and Budget manages the state-sponsored national board initiatives. Currently, the state will prepay or reimburse teachers seeking board certification up to $2,000 of the $2,300 fee for certification if they are successfully certified. In addition, upon certification, teachers receive a supplement equal to 10% of the state's base-salary pay for the life of the certificate. Concern about the low success rate of candidates of color, however, has continued to grow since the first teachers were certified in 1994.

In October 2001, a committee comprising board-certified teachers, administrators, representatives from the professional organizations, and master teachers examined the policies, procedures, and candidate support opportunities previously provided and recommended opportunities to improve success in the NBPTS process for all of Georgia's educators. Although it was concerned with candidate support initiatives statewide, the committee identified three issues that are noteworthy regarding support of candidates of color: (a) accessibility of information and opportunities, (b) organized and effective candidate support opportunities, and (c) issues of fairness and equity.

Regarding accessibility of information and opportunities for support, the committee found that in the mid-1990s, candidates for board certification in Georgia received minimal and varied formal support as they responded to the portfolio and assessment center requirements. By 1997, some candidate support activities were emerging, and soon candidate support activities were available from a variety of sources. The committee

found, however, that accessibility of information regarding national board certification and opportunities for support were not consistent statewide. This factor could clearly impact underrepresented groups, particularly candidates teaching in less affluent schools or districts.

Knowing and having support from other board-certified teachers may impact candidates' success rates (NBPTS, 2001). African American candidates in particular would appear to benefit from knowing and having support from other African American teachers who have successfully completed the certification process. This view finds support from the personal interview conducted by the African American certified teacher (personal communication, April 14, 2002). Because the pass rate is so low for African American candidates, few African American board-certified teachers are available to provide support and assistance to their colleagues.

In addition, the committee found that when organized and effective candidate support opportunities were available, they were sponsored by a variety of providers (see Figure 6.2). Providers of support activities for educators seeking national board certification, however, did not have uniform guidelines for assisting educators with the rigorous process.

The committee was also concerned about issues of fairness and equity. The committee found that representation of diverse national board-certified teachers in Georgia is not in the same proportion as those present in the workforce. Approximately 78% of the teachers in Georgia are White, while 20.3% are African American (Georgia Professional Standards Commission, 2001). Only 11% of the board-certified teachers in Georgia are African American. To address these concerns, the committee made the following recommendations, which have since been enacted by the state:

1. Candidates can apply for prepayment of fees by state or state-managed funds by completing a 20-hour precandidate course, The Knowledgeable Teacher.
2. A 30-hour candidate course, The Accomplished Teacher, will be made available to educators before applying for national board certification.
3. Standards for facilitator training were established along with standards for each of two courses, The Knowledgeable Teacher and The Accomplished Teacher.
4. Agencies or institutions providing candidate support for teachers who receive state or state-managed funds must obtain approval from the standards commission for precandidate, candidate, and facilitator training.

Figure 6.2. Sources of NBPTS Candidate Support in Georgia and Percentage of Candidates Participating

State or local teacher union	38.8%
National board-certified teachers	38.2%
School district or administrators	27.2%
Other national board candidates	19.0%
Private foundation or organization	11.9%
Local college or university	8.0%
Other	19.0%

5. The primary facilitator for all state-supported classes will be a national board-certified teacher who has completed standards commission-approved facilitator training.
6. The provider of facilitator training will be a board-certified teacher who has completed NBPTS facilitator training.

Precandidate Support

To specifically address the issues of accessibility of information and organized, effective candidate support opportunities, an electronic template of the precandidate course, The Knowledgeable Teacher, has been developed and distributed to providers statewide. National board-certified teachers selected as instructors for the course complete approved facilitator training. Providers offering candidate support are not required to use the electronic template for the course, but it is available to those who wish to do so. Some areas of the state, particularly rural or less affluent areas, do not have board-certified teachers readily available as instructors. In this case, board-certified teachers from the Georgia Teacher Center (a state-funded teaching and learning center) and state professional organizations provide the candidate support with activities. Further, regional education services agencies sponsor the courses for interested educators from school systems.

These initial attempts to level the playing field have resulted in a positive increase in participation from diverse educators in the state subsidy program. During the first funding cycle in spring 2002, more than 1,300 educators completed the application for funding support on-line and participated in the required precandidate course. Twenty-two percent of the precandidates were educators of color. This ratio is consistent with the numbers of diverse candidates in Georgia's teaching force. Further analysis of the success rate of African American participants in board

certification will determine the degree to which the program has been successful in reducing adverse impact statewide.

Candidate Support

An electronic template of the candidate course, The Accomplished Teacher, is currently in development. It will be made available statewide through electronic media. Candidates successfully completing both the precandidate and candidate courses have 2 years of credit toward prepayment of the fees for national board certification.

These initiatives are intended to influence adverse impact by providing equal access to funding for national board certification and to provide statewide availability of organized support programs based on uniform standards for precandidate, candidate, and facilitator training. Initial significant increases in participation of African American candidates in the support initiatives are encouraging. Future research plans include an analysis of the organized support activities to determine whether the activities have an impact on the success rate of Georgia's diverse candidates in the national board certification process.

Support Initiatives by Higher Education Institutions

Candidates of color can find support in the NBPTS process in a variety of ways at state institutions of higher education. For example, one Georgia institution provides support within the framework of three master of education programs that have been aligned with NBPTS standards. As a result, degree-seeking candidates have the added benefit of being supported in the NBPTS certification process. The experiences at the institution provide an example of how existing programs at the graduate level may be redesigned to provide support for diverse candidates in their eventual pursuit of board certification. The activities reviewed in this section address three primary strategies: (a) critical analysis of the standards and alignment of existing programs with NBPTS standards, (b) development of collaborative practices that support diverse candidates, and (c) the design of authentic assessments and experiences that reflect the NBPTS portfolio and process. The goal of the college of education in this institution is to assist all candidates in the graduate programs to develop their expertise as teacher-leaders using the NBPTS core principles and certificate area standards as guides.

Analysis of Standards and Program Alignment

In developing the performance standards for graduate candidates at the institution, faculty from across disciplines and in the college of education

engaged in critical analysis of the NBPTS documents. As Delandshere and Arens (2001) suggest, uncritical participation in standards-based reforms may have the undesired effect of limiting alternative perspectives on teaching and learning. Through this analysis and the ensuing discussions, the faculty developed a unitwide candidate performance instrument. The candidate performance outcomes (see Figure 6.3) were developed from the NBPTS core propositions and the standards in each certification area for which degrees are offered at the institution. Candidates are evaluated on a scale of 1 to 4, with 3 being the minimal performance level for graduation from the program.

One of the departments in the college of education recently completed the alignment of its graduate major with NBPTS standards. It provides an example of how existing programs can be analyzed and redesigned in light of the standards. In the department of secondary and middle grades education, the graduate major was recently renamed the "master of education in adolescent education." Consistent with the language of the NBPTS, the program is designed for teachers of early adolescents (middle grades) and adolescents/young adults (high school). The renaming of the major serves two purposes. First, it is the final step toward making the alignment with the standards explicit to potential students. Years of collaboration and development had gone into program revisions. Renaming the major to signify the close alignment seemed natural. Second, the program focuses on teachers in both middle grades and secondary content areas. The new name identifies the program as uniquely designed to meet the needs of both groups of teachers. This distinction is a powerful marketing tool to attract teachers from both levels. Potential candidates immediately recognize that the program not only leads to a master of education degree but also has the added benefit of preparing them for national board certification.

The program is a content-based cohort model, which admits a new cohort of 20 to 25 teachers in each of four content areas (English/language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies) each summer. The program of study is designed to deepen the content knowledge required of teachers of middle and secondary students as established by the NBPTS, National Council of Teachers of English, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, National Science Teachers Association, and National Council for Social Studies.

Candidates for the master of education in adolescent education complete a content-focused, standards-based program preparing them to be expert teacher-leaders. The degree facilitates the candidates' progress to-

Figure 6.3. Candidate Performance Outcomes (Master of Education)

Outcome 1: Candidates are committed to students and their learning

- Believe that all students can learn; help students develop a positive disposition for learning.
- Recognize and value individual differences in students and adjust practice accordingly.
- Treat students equitably and provide equitable access to the full curriculum.
- Understand how students develop and use this understanding to make decisions about how to teach.
- Provide enriching educational experiences that capitalize on and enlarge students' previous educational and life experiences.
- Demonstrate an understanding that a teacher's influence extends beyond the cognitive capacity of students (e.g., concerned with students' self-efficacy/concept, motivation, relationships, development of character, civic virtues).

Outcome 2: Candidates know the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects to students

- Possess broad and current knowledge of subjects taught and know how to convey subjects to students.
- Clearly articulate goals for students.
- Demonstrate understanding of connections between concepts, within and across disciplines, and connections with the real world.
- Demonstrate passion for teaching and the subjects they teach.
- Teach in ways that convey knowledge as a combination of skills, dispositions, and beliefs–integrated, flexible, elaborate, and deep.

Outcome 3: Candidates are responsible for managing and monitoring student learning

- Take responsibility for capturing and sustaining the interest of students.
- Create safe, well managed, supportive, inclusive, and challenging learning environments.
- Use multiple methods, technologies, and resources to meet instructional goals.
- Effectively alternate organizational arrangements to positively impact student learning.
- Track student progress with a variety of formal and informal evaluation methods and use results to improve student learning.
- Accurately interpret student performance data and report to multiple audiences.
- Help students engage in self-assessment, instilling in them a sense of responsibility for monitoring their learning.

Outcome 4: Candidates think systematically about their practice and learn from experience

- Reflect regularly on teaching and learning.
- Respect the profession of teaching, recognize its complexities, and commit to continued professional development.
- Use sound judgment in ambiguous teaching/learning contexts.
- Seek the advice of others and draw on educational research and scholarship to improve practice.
- Design and conduct research to improve practice and positively impact student learning.

Outcome 5: Candidates act as members of learning communities

- Collaborate with peers and other professionals to strengthen school effectiveness, advance knowledge, and influence policy and practice.
- Respect family structures and work creatively, energetically, and collaboratively.
- Use community resources and seek opportunities to involve citizens in education.
- Participate in one or more professional organizations.

ward meeting the NBPTS standards in the certification areas of early adolescence/English/language arts, mathematics, science, social studies, or general studies, or adolescent/young adult/English/language arts, mathematics, science, or social studies. Candidates take a combination of courses in the professional sequence (15 hours), content (18 hours), and cognate areas (3 hours). As a capstone experience, candidates complete a portfolio. The portfolio requirements resemble in part those required by the NBPTS. This process of portfolio development is designed to document a candidate's development of expertise as a teacher-leader and his or her impact on student learning. Changes in classroom practice as well as in one's self are documented. Candidates who complete the program and the portfolio are prepared to seek certification but currently are not required to do so.

With its programs so closely aligned with NBPTS standards and guidelines established by the state, the institution is currently seeking approval from the state as a provider of precandidate support, as outlined in the previous section. If approved, candidates may apply to the state for repayment of the NBPTS certification fees upon completion of the M.Ed. program of study.

Models of Collaborative Practices

Institutions of higher education in Georgia offer a variety of ongoing collaborative initiatives. At one institution, for instance, collaboration between faculty in the college of education and faculty in the content areas is common. Although the master of education programs are housed in the college of education, their development has been collaborative among three colleges and many departments across campus. Furthermore, the collaborative development of the programs involves advisory boards comprising practicing professionals, including board-certified teachers who provide input into program development and collegewide initiatives.

For example, for the past 3 years, faculty in the college of education and faculty in the arts and sciences have engaged in ongoing program development of the M.Ed. in adolescent education using NBPTS standards in the content areas as guides. Candidates for the degree and for successful NBPTS certification must possess a deep knowledge of the content they teach. Collaboration between education faculty and faculty across the university is critical in strengthening candidates' expertise in the content areas. Collaboration not only includes faculty from across the university but also board-certified teachers who serve on advisory boards to the college. Partnering with board-certified teachers, especially African

American teachers, provides role models for candidates engaged in the certification process. Furthermore, having African American NBPTS-certified teachers work with candidates sends the message that African American teachers are successful in the NBPTS process, thus possibly circumventing, in part, potential stereotype threats.

Other collaborative higher education initiatives in the state involve the work of a statewide committee (the Georgia National Board Certified Teacher Support Committee) that links higher education institutions, state accrediting agencies, and board-certified teachers in a network of support for all candidates in the certification process. As a part of this committee, public and private colleges from around the state meet regularly with representatives from the state accrediting agency and national board-certified teachers to exchange ideas, seek support for, and address issues related to the NBPTS initiatives around the state.

Finally, establishing collaborative partnerships between university faculty and NBPTS-certified teachers of color provides linkages to real-world applications that candidates for the M.Ed. and NBPTS certification must experience. Higher education faculty typically do not know the process from the perspective of a candidate. Currently, a direct process is not available for full-time faculty to sit for national board certification. As the number of board-certified teachers increases across the nation, however, higher education institutions will have more access to NBPTS-certified teachers. If we value their expertise and honor their voices, these teachers can provide rich insights into the process and products inherent in board certification.

Authentic Assessments and Learning Experiences Linked to the NBPTS

Higher education faculty can help diverse candidates become more familiar with the portfolio process and product by embedding NBPTS-related assessment activities in their courses (see Figure 6.4). For example, videotaped analysis of teaching with critical reflection and student work analysis are required of NBPTS candidates. Although assignments resemble the NBPTS-required entries, certain aspects of the assignments are unique to the course in which they are completed (see Figure 6.5). In the example provided in Figure 6.5, the nature of the entry is similar to the NBPTS portfolio entries requiring videotaped analysis of a lesson. In the entry submitted as part of this class, however, candidates are required to delineate and evaluate their use of specific learning theories that have been

Figure 6.4. Embedding NBPTS-Related Assessment Activities Into Existing Courses

Program/degree: Secondary and middle grades education/M.Ed. in adolescent education

Sample courses offered	Program and NBPTS outcome(s) addressed	Performance based and/or field based
EDUC 7700, Reflective Inquiry	1, 3, 4, 5	*Portfolio entry:* Initial reflection on learning and teaching practice using 5 university outcomes (NBPTS core propositions) as a guide. *Portfolio entry:* Initial entry of descriptive, analytical, and reflective writing addressing own classroom practice.
EDUG 7703, Advanced Studies of Middle Grades Learner	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	*Portfolio entry:* Videotaped teaching vignette and instructional analysis. *Portfolio entry:* Student work samples with critical analysis. *Portfolio entry:* Documented professional collaboration. *Technology expertise:* Videotape production.

discussed in class. These types of linkages to theory are not necessarily required in NBPTS entries but are essential at the graduate level.

Other types of assessments can strengthen candidates' understanding of the board standards and the certification process. Coursework at the graduate level can include specific opportunities to engage in the type of writing required of NBPTS candidates. This factor is especially important for candidates who are hesitant about writing or lack adequate skill to express their ideas well in writing.

Recommendations and Conclusion

Nearly 25 years after its inception, the impact of the NBPTS on teaching, teachers, and teacher education is being realized. Simultaneously, questions about the impact of the NBPTS certification process on candidates of color are now being addressed. Institutions of higher education, state agencies, and the national board all have a responsibility in addressing these issues.

While researchers from around the country explore the issues of adverse impact and associated standards-based reforms, colleges and universities must critically examine the implications of the NBPTS for their candidates and programs. By being aware of the potential that the NBPTS certification process offers for increased recognition, respect, and mon-

Figure 6.5. Example of an NBPTS-Related Assignment

Portfolio entry: Videotaped teaching vignette and instructional analysis

In this entry, you will submit a 20-minute clip (continuous and unedited) in which you engage the whole class in discussion of a topic/concept/theme. The clip may be one in which you interact with a small group of students exploring a topic, concept, or theme. The videotape will be supplemented with a written commentary that contextualizes and situates the learning and analyzes the candidate's instruction and impact on student learning. A primary goal of this entry is to document effective use of learning theories discussed in class and in the text. A sketch of the classroom and so forth will also accompany this entry, along with other artifacts such as student work samples.

Videotape: Submit the videotape showing a discussion or exploration of a topic/concept/theme among you and your students. In written commentary, explain how the discussion fits into the rest of the lesson. Use the following guidelines:

A. Instructional context: What are the ages and grades of students featured in the entry? What is the title and subject matter of the class? What instructional challenges are represented by the students?

B. Planning: What are the learning goals and objectives of the lesson? How do these goals fit into goals for the unit or sequence? How do they fit into your overall goals for the year? How does the discussion format support those goals? What learning theory(ies) are you using? Why these theories and not some other?

C. Analysis of videotape: How does what is seen in the videotape fit in[illegible] lesson as a whole? When citing the tape, use specific details (e.g., After girl in red dress answered incorrectly, I...). How were the goals achieved by using your theory(ies)? Specific evidence? How did the design and execution of the lesson help accomplish your goals? What did you do to engage your students? How are the theory(ies) used evident in the video? What specific interactions in the videotape provide evidence that learning has/has not occurred and that the theories were/were not effective?

Reflection: Identify critical moments/choices you made during instruction that impacted the direction of the lesson. What do you regard as one of the significant successes of this lesson/use of this theory? Why? What would you do differently if you were to teach this lesson again? Explain your rationale. Explain how what happened in the videotape will influence or has influenced your future instruction for the class/students.

etary incentives for teachers, institutions could help make the process and portfolio more familiar to all candidates.

Approached carefully and critically, graduate programs aligned with NBPTS standards can have positive results for colleges and candidates. Rather than viewing the NBPTS and certification as competitors or a force to contend with, teacher educators should see the influence of the NBPTS as an opportunity to elevate the stature of the profession of teaching and teacher education.

Certainly, for many programs, the NBPTS provides a framework on which to build. The NBPTS vision of accomplished teaching, however, should not be the totality of what is envisioned for graduate candidates.

Graduate teacher education should ask more from all candidates. For example, experiences could be structured in graduate teacher education so that all candidates seeking advanced degrees are led to a deeper knowledge of content, theory, and research than is required of NBPTS candidates.

With the increasing number of states and school districts offering incentives for board-certified teachers, states should also offer support for candidates in the process. For candidates of color or candidates living and teaching in underserved or less affluent districts, lack of support and resources in the certification process is an issue of fairness and equity. States should work to develop a system of support as described in this chapter. By so doing, states would provide all candidates with equitable and fair access to the resources necessary for successful completion of the NBPTS certification process.

For the NBPTS to fulfill its own mission of "establishing high and rigorous standards of what accomplished teachers should know and be able to do," it must ensure that its vision of accomplished teaching is an inclusive one that does not narrowly define accomplished teaching or reduce it to a prescribed set of predictable and scripted responses. Good teaching cannot be reduced to technique, because it comes from the identity and integrity of the teacher (Palmer, 1998). Will the board critically examine the assessment process and consider alternative ways to assess candidates' performance? Can the board ensure that assessors who evaluate candidates' performance are knowledgeable of culturally responsive pedagogy? If not, we risk rejecting the richness of our diversity and our candidates' integrity in our embrace of standards.

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7

COMPATIBILITY OF NATIONAL STANDARDS FOR DIVERSITY WITH P-12 STANDARDS

Fannye E. Love and Bobbie C. Smothers, The University of Mississippi

National and state accountability issues continue to influence what and how schools implement ways to improve student performance. States are constantly seeking effective means to improve student achievement and provide oversight for the educational system. Today, most states employ standards-based reform using statewide academic goals and state tests to measure students' progress toward achieving those goals (Claycomb & Kysilko, 2000). Many state accountability plans impose a variety of stakes for those who take the tests, including promotion, graduation, and college scholarships.

In addition, most states incorporate sanctions or consequences for those districts that do not meet the required standards (Welburn, 2000). With such high stakes placed on schools and school districts to reach standards that are measured in a variety of ways, the compatibility of what is expected and what is a reality can have far-reaching consequences for today's educators. School reform has ventured into several areas; however, standards and accountability can be found in every school district. The standards movement has propelled numerous changes in curriculum and how schools assess what students learn. Rather than centering on textbook-driven curricula, the language of education has focused on performance and content standards. Generally, performance standards describe how well students are expected to know the content, and content standards specify what students should know (Lewis, 2000). The change to this focus has necessitated that teachers become well grounded in the content taught and ascertain a firm grasp of how to teach it effectively to diverse groups of students (Wise & Leibbrand, 2000). Many factors contribute to the magnitude of the standards-based reform movement and its effects on what schools do to assist diverse learners in achieving these standards.

National Educational Goals

In 1990, the National Education Goals Panel (NEGP), a bipartisan and intergovernmental body of federal and state officials, was charged with monitoring and speeding progress toward the eight national education goals (National Education Goals Panel, 1999). Its panel consisted of eight governors, four members of Congress, four state legislators, and two members appointed by the president. Beginning in 1991, NEGP has issued an annual report on the progress the nation and the states have made toward reaching the eight educational goals. To measure progress toward meeting these goals, NEGP used 27 national- and 34 state-level indicators. Many of the state and national indicators were identical, such as student achievement in mathematics, science, and reading. Those goals that correlate directly with P-12 schools and student achievement are worthy of our attention.

Goal 1: Ready to Learn

The report revealed an increase in preschool participation between ages 3 and 5 and from high- and low-income families. Preschool participation included children who were enrolled in any center-based program, including nursery school, prekindergarten programs, preschools, day care centers, and Head Start. Although there was an increase in the number of children who attended preschool programs, we did not reach the goal as stated: *By the year 2000, all children in America will start school ready to learn.* Perhaps a more appropriate goal would be "schools ready to teach," as it is the schools' responsibility to be ready for all children.

Goal 2: School Completion

The high school graduation rate has not changed significantly. In 1991, approximately 86% of 18- to 24-year-olds completed high school. By 1998, the completion rate was approximately 85%. Consequently, the stated goal was not reached: *By the year 2000, the high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90%.*

Goal 3: Student Achievement and Citizenship

This ambitious goal stated that by the year 2000, all students would leave Grades 4, 8, and 12 having demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter, including English, mathematics, science, foreign languages, civics and government, economics, arts, history, and geography. In addition, every school in America would ensure that all students learn to use their minds well so that they would be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our nation's mod-

ern economy. Has this goal been met? The report revealed no significant improvement in reading achievement in Grades 4 and 12, while Grade 8 made upward progress. Mathematics achievement, however, showed upward progress in Grades 4, 8, and 12. On the other hand, progress data were not available for the remaining subject areas.

Goal 4: Teacher Education and Professional Development

Selected topics for professional development included uses of technology, methods of teaching subject field, in-depth study in subject field, and student assessment. The report showed that progress has declined in the percentage of secondary teachers who hold an undergraduate or graduate degree in their main teaching assignment.

Goal 5: Mathematics and Science

By 2000, United States students would be "first in the world" in mathematics and science achievement. Has this goal been achieved? According to the report, international mathematics assessments showed the following results:

Grade 4	7 out of 25 countries scored above the U.S.
Grade 8	20 out of 40 countries scored above the U.S.
Grade 12	14 out of 20 countries scored above the U.S.

International science assessments showed the following results:

Grade 4	1 out of 25 countries scored above the U.S.
Grade 8	9 out of 40 countries scored above the U.S.
Grade 12	11 out of 20 countries scored above the U.S.

Although positive results were found when reporting the increased number of mathematics and science degrees awarded to all students, including Blacks, Hispanics, Native Americans, and females, it was not enough to be significant. Degrees awarded to all students increased from 39% to 43%, while minorities increased from 39% to 40%. Moreover, females showed an increase from 35% to 41%. Data included only U.S. citizens and resident aliens on permanent visas. Mathematical sciences and fields of study in the seven science categories were included in the report.

In conclusion, these goals focused on results that states used to judge the success of their educational systems. Consequently, desired results and accountability for student learning drove policy decisions.

Teacher Effects on Student Achievement

Research on teacher effects on student achievement refers to process-outcome research linking teacher behavior to student achievement (Brophy,

1986). Consistently replicated findings link student achievement gains to several factors. First, students must be provided the opportunity to learn. Consequently, the teacher should place great emphasis on academic instruction and mastery of the curriculum. In addition, Brophy (1986) contends that student engagement rates depend on the teacher's ability to manage a well-organized classroom environment. To engage students in meaningful academic activities, the teacher must ensure the appropriateness of these activities for the students while effectively implementing them. Consistent student success depends on maximum content coverage along with brisk pacing through the curriculum. The teacher must ensure, however, that students progress all along the way with minimum frustration. Further, students' learning increases when teachers actively teach or supervise the students rather than allowing them to work alone or to not work at all (Brophy & Good, 1984).

Before students engage in learning, they must be motivated to learn. Teachers make a difference in shaping students' behavior through motivational strategies. Motivation refers to students' subjective experiences, especially their willingness to engage in lessons and learning activities (Brophy, 1998; Good & Brophy, 2000). Brophy argues that the teacher's primary motivational goals should focus on encouraging students to engage in classroom activities with a motivation to learn. Before students can be effectively motivated, however, their hierarchy of lower and higher needs must be addressed. Basically, the teacher must provide meaningful and worthwhile experiences for optimal learning to take place in the classroom. A patient, encouraging, and supportive teacher augments students' learning. Although several factors influence motivational patterns of students, teachers can enhance students' performance by encouraging them to engage in the learning activities (Good & Brophy, 2000).

Martin, Veldman, and Anderson (1980), an older but classic study, verified several teacher behaviors that yielded significant correlations with student achievement. These behaviors included the frequency of individual contact, the nature of the interactions (academic, social, or behavioral), the difficulty level of questions, and the type of feedback given to students' answers. Results from their study of 20 teachers in six schools of middle socioeconomic status indicated that students showed greater achievement in classes where more students had higher proportions of successful interactions and where the teacher showed a greater tendency to sustain interactions. On the other hand, those students who achieved less than their peers had less successful interactions, displayed a greater tendency to shout out answers before being called on, and received more

criticism. Similar results were found with children of color in a study conducted by Ramirez and Castaneda (1974). They found that students of color show greater achievement when given more attention by the teacher.

Standards and Teacher Quality

Although a difference of opinion exists regarding how to improve teacher quality, agreement can be found when discussing the need for teacher quality (Wise & Leibbrand, 2000). Based on the standards set by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), colleges and universities must meet unit standards that include candidate performance. It is required that all candidates "know the content of their fields; demonstrate professional and pedagogical knowledge, skills, and dispositions; and apply them so that all students learn" (Wise & Leibbrand, 2000, p. 614). In addition, these institutions must collect data on the qualifications of the applicants and performance of candidates and graduates. These performance data and other information must be used to evaluate and improve programs. In conclusion, NCATE placed a clear emphasis on candidate performance and evaluation of the performance.

The emphasis on a candidate's performance directly correlated with one school district's plan of action, and the importance of teacher quality has proved to make a significant difference in student achievement in this school district. All 10 of the conventional schools in the New Haven Unified School District (San Francisco Bay area) accomplished the designation of California Distinguished School. Primarily, early recognition of the importance of quality teaching coupled with the acknowledgment of the essential role of the teacher contributed to the district's accomplishments (Snyder, 2000). Other contributing factors included

- Establishing high expectations for teachers
- Selecting quality new teachers
- Computerizing the applicant tracking system
- Designing an interview system with the capability of interviewing applicants from any place in the world without leaving the office
- Collaborating with teacher education programs
- Developing teachers from recruitment to retirement
- Rewarding with the highest teacher salaries in the Bay area and in the state's upper echelon
- Organizing and implementing an extended day program for students
- Implementing a comprehensive K-4 standards and assessment system (Snyder, 2000)

In addition, schools at all three levels (K-4, 5-8, 9-12) have been recognized as exemplary by the U.S. Department of Education. The district serves a diverse population of 14,200 students: 28.3% Latino American, 23.8% European American, 12.5% African American, 16.4% Asian American, 17.3% Filipino, 1.2% Pacific Islander, and 0.3% Native American. Although it is not a wealthy district, many factors have enhanced its success.

What Has Been Done With Accountability, Standards, and Assessment?

According to Lammel (1999), educational accountability really answers the question, "What should students know and be able to do?" He asserts that the accountability movement has propelled districts to national and international comparisons. Since the release of its first curriculum standards in 1989, the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (2000) has continued to examine, evaluate, and revise mathematics standards. By 1993, 45 states had begun planning, developing, or implementing new curriculum frameworks. The purposes and the form of specific standards were diverse, however. The Consortium for Policy Research Education (1993) reported that current standards projects operate within a consensus environment on general and broad issues; however, disagreements exist when considering specific content standards. One perplexing problem of accountability is how schools accurately and fairly measure student progress toward rigorous standards (Lammel, 1999). States have answered the accountability question with a variety of accountability plans.

Virginia, for example, launched its reform program in 1994 to include four major elements: (a) standards of learning, (b) tests to measure student progress, (c) measures of school accountability, and (d) a communication component. First, in 1995, achievement levels were set from kindergarten through 12th grade in English, mathematics, science, history, and social studies. Second, tests to measure student achievement were administered in 1998. These "Standards of Learning" (SOL) tests were given in Grades 3, 5, and 8, as well as in high school (Grade 11). Third, accountability standards included the passage of a required minimum number of end-of-course tests for graduation, while promotion decisions were based on students' test results in Grades 3, 5, and 8. In addition, each school had to have at least 70% of its students meet proficiency levels on all applicable SOL tests to maintain accreditation. Finally, communication expectations required each school to distribute annual school performance report cards to parents. These report cards

contained information about SOL test results, accreditation status, attendance rates, dropout rates, and school safety data (King & Bunce, 1999).

Another compelling example of results can be found in an urban education report. Based on this report from the Charles A. Dana Center at the University of Texas-Austin (1999), nine urban schools with diverse populations showed remarkable student achievement results. All nine public schools were characterized as follows: (a) majority of students met low-income criteria, (b) schools located in urban area with no selective admission policies, (c) schools achieved higher percentile scores in mathematics and reading than the average of all schools in the state, and (d) a large percentage of language-deficient and disabled students took the standardized tests. Credit for the outstanding student performance was a result of teaching what the district or state expected students to learn.

Burgess Elementary School in Atlanta provides an example of academic improvement. Students showed remarkable performance in reading and mathematics from 1995 through 1998 (see Figure 7.1). On the Iowa Test of Basic Skills in 1998, 64% of the students in Grades 1 through 5 performed above the national norm in reading, and 72% scored above the national norm in mathematics. In 1995, only 29% of the students scored above the national norm in reading, and only 34% were above the national norm in mathematics. District data show other improvements as well. Student and staff attendance rose during the same 4 years.

A recent study of multicultural education and elementary school teachers in a large Midwestern school district has detected early warning signs that the multicultural education reform movement is in peril (Bohn & Sleeter, 2000). Between its inception in late 1997 and its conclusion in the early months of 1999, this study documented a marked decline in teacher and administrator concern about multicultural education.

According to Bohn and Sleeter (2000), both teachers and administrators in the school district blame new state standards and anticipated state assessments, which have pressured school districts to standardize and emphasize content at the expense of any other concerns. The authors indicated that conversations with colleagues around the country suggest that this is not an isolated phenomenon. Multicultural education appears to be in very real danger of getting shelved as the preoccupation with national and state standards and testing intensifies.

State-mandated curriculum standards are clearly the order of the day. Every state, except Iowa, either is developing or has already established curriculum standards, and the vast majority of states also have formal assessments linked to their standards.

Figure 7.1. Percent of Burgess Elementary Students Scoring At or Above National Average on Iowa Test of Basic Skills

	1995	1996	1997	1998	Improvement
Reading	29	50	56	64	+35
Mathematics	34	46	46	72	+38

The authors were concerned that the standards movement today is subverting multicultural education and that the standards per se are not necessarily antithetical to multicultural education. Standards can also make explicit the subject matter on which students will be tested, a detail that may help parents and community leaders at least know what the game is and how students will be judged (Bohn & Sleeter, 2000).

In reality, the playing field is anything but level. Standards operate on the assumption that all students have an equal opportunity to learn. Bohn and Sleeter (2000) noted that enormous discrepancies exist among facilities, resources, and teachers in public schools—even within the same city or the same state. In particular, these discrepancies vary based on where one can afford to live. We would be deluding ourselves to think that the curriculum standards alone will ensure that everyone receives the same education.

The large Midwestern school district in Bohn and Sleeter's study (2000) took a very common approach to standardizing curriculum: Its leaders purchased new textbooks that they felt reflect the thrust of the standards in each subject. The study's authors' experiences with publishers' textbook series, however, do not inspire the same confidence in this path to curricular reform (Bohn & Sleeter, 2000). School reform for a multicultural society has to mean sharing power and collaboratively making decisions.

Evidence of students' progress toward meeting standards set by the nation, the states, and school districts depends on the effectiveness of the planning, development, and implementation of the reform efforts. Successfully meeting the educational needs of diverse student populations can be achieved if we know where to begin, what to do, and how to proceed from one level of performance to a higher level of expectation.

In conclusion, the standards movement is arguably a major force in education today, and some researchers assert that the significance of the standards campaign will be huge. Jennings (1995) reported that the national standards are important because they show the content deemed significant by various subject-matter associations. On the other hand, the

news media emphasize a national curriculum, thereby inciting a fear that these standards will be imposed on everyone. States are beginning to use the standards process as a way to improve schools overall, however.

Quality School Culture

For the current standards movement to make a difference, a school's culture must be committed to helping all students achieve excellence. According to Lee (2000), implementing new content and performance standards in schools that still adhere to a sort-and-select, bell-shaped curve of student ability and achievement will not result in success for all students. The two paradigms are mutually exclusive. If teachers and administrators continue to believe there will always be the C student, then the core premise of the standards movement—success for all with challenging standards—will never be realized. If we are to build a culture committed to high achievement for all, methods of teaching and learning must change.

According to Lee (2000), all students can meet high expectations when they assist in determining how they learn as well as what they learn. In addition, when the learning environment is organized to expect quality and sustained effort is required for achieving clearly defined standards, students will meet high expectations. The culture of quality requires that teachers and their principal work collaboratively to provide support for those students who need additional help in achieving challenging standards.

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8

THE ROLE OF STATE STANDARDS: COMPOUNDING, CONFOUNDING, OR CONTRIBUTING TO DIVERSITY?

Beverly L. Downing and Sylvia A. Mason, Saint Augustine's College

Consider this: What would happen if we engaged in a conversation about diversity without using the words *race* or *ethnicity* or related terms? Can you imagine what this conversation would be like? What would happen if we did not have programmatic options (special education, in-school suspension, specialized reading programs) and other special initiatives that remove children from the classroom? Could students meet high-stakes standards? Would teachers find a way to teach all children?

The majority of state education agencies in the American public school system have clearly articulated policies regarding student achievement, assessment, and accountability. What is not clearly defined, however, is how the policies relate to the schools' diverse populations.

In academia, the word *diversity* encompasses multiculturalism, pluralism, cultural democracy, demographic diversity, diversity of learning styles, diversity and curriculum change, diversity and learning environment, diversity of instruction, diversity as assimilation, and diversity as balkanization (Louisiana State University Office of Academic Affairs, 2000). No matter what you call it, however, all of academia can agree on one thing: The phenomenon is impeding the progress of schools meeting standards.

In an era when student achievement and accountability are sacred, it is imperative that standards be achieved by all children. Unfortunately, this goal has not been met. Teachers have, in fact, been teaching, and it was believed some or all students were learning. When students were tested, however, scores revealed that what appeared to be a functional educational system was not. The American education system was flawed. Why were some students meeting the achievement and accountability standards and others failing the assessments used to measure success? There had to be a reason. Right?

If everybody were the same, it would be easy to rationalize why standards were not met. It would be a nice little bell curve, and we could all

live with that. But we are not all the same, and when subcultures are plotted together, the results are skewed and we have a societal problem.

> The United States has the most diverse group of students in its history, and all the basic trends indicated the diversity will become even greater. Among our school-age population we have only a generation before the entire country becomes majority non-White or non-European in origin. Diversity is growing rapidly in the nation's suburban rings, which have become the center of America's life and politics. (Orfield, 2002, p. 1)

School is the first place people come together. It is the place, next to family, where children receive their foundation for life. These initial experiences help to determine students' destiny. School is a critical place, one that will in part determine whether people become self-assured, self-sufficient, and contributing members of society.

Four State Programs

This chapter examines several years of student performance data in Texas, North Carolina, Washington, and the District of Columbia. In an effort to be representative of different areas of the country, these areas were selected because of their location, educational reform, and accountability efforts. In all four locations, students from racial or ethnic minority groups, from low-income or poor families, and who spoke a minority language had significantly lower scores than their counterparts from other backgrounds.

State systems, legislators, and governors have set out to close the academic achievement gap by improving the disparities that contribute to it. Millions of dollars are spent annually in special initiatives such as after-school programs, instruction in English as a second language, and special assistance teams to help low-performing schools. Additionally, teacher preparation programs are charged with preparing a new type of teacher—one who knows how to effectively address the challenges of diversity and help all students demonstrate learning and meet states' standards and accountability demands.

States are challenged to align high standards with diverse populations. How do states approach this task? What are the outcomes? Can they make a difference in student achievement and accountability? Can they make a difference in society?

Texas

Texas has a rich history of educational reform, and the state is considered one of the leaders in the reform movement. In a state that has "complicated and overlapping jurisdictional boundaries" (Miller, 1998) and a

"minority" student population of more than 89%, "it would be hard to devise a single urban policy that [fits every district]. . . . Each city differs markedly in it is ethnic mix" (p. 1). Fifteen districts, each with a character of its own, have demographics that show 35% of the student population is poor, Hispanic, or Black.

Instead of specifically addressing what Texas calls multiculturalism, the state decided to address overall student achievement—period. In articulating its expectations that all students meet high standards and accountability measures, the state made sure that everyone was accountable for student achievement on standardized tests (Horn, 2001).

Of the numerous special initiatives that Texas has implemented to help student achievement, one is of particular interest: the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills (TAAS), developed by the Educational Testing Service. Instituted in 1980, the state test began assessing students in Grades 3, 6, 7, and 9 for reading, math, and writing and in Grade 1 for math and language arts (Alford, 2001). In the 1990s, changes occurred in grade-level testing, with Grades 3 through 8 and 10 assessed in reading and mathematics and Grades 4, 8, and 10 also tested in writing.

Since the implementation of TAAS, students' achievement rates have steadily increased, including scores among minorities. During the 1998-1999 school year, students' TAAS scores increased by an average of 3 percentage points. Likewise, in 1999-2000, overall scores improved by an average of 2 percentage points or better. Grissmer (1998) has determined that averaging the gains of all grades and subjects for the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reading and mathematics test shows that North Carolina and Texas have the highest average gains among all states. Nonetheless, although minority scores did improve, they still significantly lagged behind their White counterparts. Tables 8.1 through 8.4 from the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills and Accountability Standards Report (1996-2001) provide summary information on overall and minority achievement.

Pursuing high-stakes standards has not come easily or without consequences. The dropout rate of African Americans, Hispanics, and other minorities rose slightly. It is important to note, however, that although in some years the dropout rate increased, in others it leveled off or actually decreased. These patterns notwithstanding, the dropout rates for African Americans and other minorities are still higher than for their White counterparts. Tables 8.5 through 8.7 from the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills and Accountability Standards Reports (1995-2000) summarize the dropout rates for Texas.

Table 8.1. Texas Assessment of Academic Skills and Accountability Standards Reports, 1997 and 1998

Student group	Spring 1998, Grades 3-8 & 10				Spring 1997, Grades 3-8 & 10				Improv. to 50% standard: Actual change
	Number passing	Number taking	Student group percent	Percent passing	Number passing	Number taking	Student group percent	Percent passing	
Reading									
All students	1,335,213	1,535,047	100%	87%	1,273,197	1,515,660	100%	84.0%	+3.0
African American	166,343	212,848	13.9%	78.2%	153,768	210,157	13.9%	73.2%	+5.0
Hispanic	410,547	516,393	33.6%	79.5%	377,414	501,384	33.1%	75.3%	+4.2
White	715,665	759,556	49.5%	94.2%	702,353	760,244	50.2%	92.4%	+1.8
Econ. disadvantaged	513,970	655,666	42.7%	78.4%	471,379	639,901	42.2%	73.7%	+4.7
Math									
All students	1,295,347	1,538,716	100%	84.2%	1,217,277	1,518,775	100%	80.1%	+4.1
African American	150,656	213,615	13.9%	70.5%	135,161	210,739	13.9%	64.1%	+6.4
Hispanic	402,612	518,450	33.7%	77.7%	361,281	503,218	33.1%	71.8%	+5.9
White	698,827	760,204	49.4%	91.9%	680,676	760,807	50.1%	89.5%	+2.4
Econ. disadvantaged	500,544	657,911	42.8%	76.1%	452,377	641,666	42.2%	70.5%	+5.6
Writing									
All students	561,676	642,363	100%	87.4%	540,575	633,900	100%	85.3%	+2.1
African American	69,686	86,640	13.5%	80.4%	65,764	86,404	13.6%	76.1%	+4.3
Hispanic	173,096	213,925	33.3%	80.9%	161,813	208,496	32.9%	77.6%	+3.3
White	300,132	321,309	50%	93.4%	295,652	319,713	50.4%	92.5%	+0.9
Econ. disadvantaged	200,705	251,910	39.2%	79.7%	185,367	243,865	38.5%	76.0%	+3.7

Source: Texas Department of Education Web site. Accountability Standards Reports (1997-1998)

Table 8.2. Texas Assessment of Academic Skills and Accountability Standards Reports, 1998 and 1999

	Spring 1999, Grades 3-8 & 10					Spring 1998, Grades 3-8 & 10				Improv. to 50% standard: Actual change
Student group	Number passing	Number taking	Credit for EOC[a]	Student group percent	Percent passing	Number passing	Number taking	Student group percent	Percent passing	
Reading										
All students	1,474,906	1,704,163	1,892	100%	86.5%	1,426,297	1,711,389	100%	83.3%	+3.2
African American	181,576	232,268	131	13.6%	78.2%	173,903	232,422	13.6%	74.8%	+3.4
Hispanic	477,265	600,028	481	35.2%	79.5%	444,430	594,111	34.7%	74.8%	+4.7
White	769,418	821,512	1,152	48.2%	93.7%	764,137	836,747	48.9%	91.3%	+2.4
Econ. disadvantaged	581,806	743,651	394	43.6%	78.2%	558,737	758,598	44.3%	73.7%	+4.5
Math										
All students	1;473,110	1,719,349	1,892	100%	85.7%	1,387,186	1,752,270	100%	80.4%	+5.3
African American	170,849	234,731	131	13.7%	72.8%	157,476	234,891	13.6%	67%	+5.8
Hispanic	490,389	607,422	481	35.3%	80.7%	439,750	600,274	34.8%	73.3%	+7.4
White	764,197	826,463	1,152	48.1%	92.5%	745,529	841,678	48.8%	88.6%	+3.9
Econ. disadvantaged	593,474	754,088	394	43.9%	78.7%	548,914	767,736	44.5%	71.5%	+7.2
Writing										
All students	614,578	696,895	1,892	100%	88.2%	587,023	697,513	100%	84.2%	+4.0
African American	77,050	94,059	131	13.5%	81.9%	72,368	94,005	13.5%	77%	+4.9
Hispanic	194,840	234,546	481	33.7%	83.1%	179,445	231,706	33.2%	77.4%	+5.7
White	322,202	346,026	1,152	49.7%	93.1%	316,093	316,093	50.3%	90.1%	+3.0
Econ. disadvantaged	222,440	273,424	394	39.2%	81.4%	210,072	210,072	38.9%	75.6%	+5.8

[a] When students at a school have met the testing requirements for graduation via the end-of-course examinations, the number of students shown in the Credit for EOC column will be included in Number Passing and Number Taking to calculate the percent passing for accountability rating purposes. The Student Group Percent column is adjusted for the number of Credit for EOC students. *Source:* Texas Department of Education Web site, Accountability Standards Reports (1998-1999)

Table 8.3. Texas Assessment of Academic Skills and Accountability Standards Reports, 1999 and 2000

	Spring 2000, Grades 3-8 & 10					Spring 1999, Grades 3-8 & 10[a]			
Student group	Number passing	Number taking	EOC credit [b]	Student group percent	Percent passing	Number passing	Number taking	EOC credit [b]	Percent passing
Reading									
All students	1,572,866	1,748,457	2,654	100%	87.4%	1,477,299	1,711,445	1,892	86.3%
African American	190,096	235,280	211	13.5%	80.8%	181,576	232,269	131	78.2%
Hispanic	523,940	649,182	765	37.1%	80.7%	479,649	607,267	481	79%
White	764,544	810,933	1,551	46.4%	94.3%	769,422	821,525	1,152	93.7%
Econ. disadvantaged	632,029	792,244	596	45.3%	79.8%	583,990	750,403	394	77.8%
Math									
All students	1,544,919	1,767,120	2,654	100%	87.4%	1,477,551	1,726,461	1,892	85.6%
African American	184,029	238,844	211	13.5%	77%	170,849	234,732	131	72.8%
Hispanic	546,076	658,621	765	37.3%	82.9%	494,811	614,493	481	80.5%
White	764,245	816,178	1,551	46.2%	93.6%	764,203	826,475	1,152	92.5%
Econ. disadvantaged	653,067	805,663	596	45.6%	81.1%	597,574	760,679	394	78.6%
Writing									
All students	641,365	727,334	2,654	100%	88.2%	621,744	707,462	1,892	87.9%
African American	78,968	95,798	211	13.2%	82.4%	77,057	94,069	131	81.9%
Hispanic	216,003	262,475	765	36.1%	82.3%	201,982	245,070	481	82.4%
White	325,196	346,035	1,551	47.6%	94%	322,211	346,042	1,152	93.1%
Econ. disadvantaged	244,703	301,060	596	41.4%	81.3%	228,983	283,151	394	80.9%

[a] Spring 1999 results have been recalculated to include Spanish Grade 4 (writing) and Spanish Grades 5 and 6 to provide comparability between 1999 and 2000. These spring 1999 results were labeled "2000 Preview Indicator" on the 1998-1999 Academic Excellence Indicator System report.

[b] Number of students who met the testing requirement for graduation by passing end-of-course examinations and did not take any exit-level TAAS test in the spring of the year shown. These numbers are included in the number passing and number taking. *Source:* Texas Department of Education Web site, Accountability Standards Reports (1999-2000)

Table 8.4. Texas Assessment of Academic Skills and Accountability Standards Reports, 2000 and 2001

Student group	Spring 2001, Grades 3-8 & 10					Spring 2000, Grades 3-8 & 10[a]			
	Number passing	Number taking	EOC credit [a]	Student group percent	Percent passing	Number passing	Number taking	EOC credit [a]	Percent passing
Reading									
All students	1,586,184	1,748,086	2,979	100%	88.94%	1,527,866	1,748,457	2,654	87.4%
African American	200,073	242,488	245	13.6%	82.5%	190,096	235,280	211	80.8%
Hispanic	568,601	681,290	881	38.2%	83.5%	523,940	649,182	765	80.7%
White	765,014	804,300	1,699	45.1%	95.1%	764,544	810,933	1,551	94.3%
Econ. disadvantaged	673,821	818,844	744	45.9%	82.3%	632,029	792,244	596	79.8%
Math									
All students	1,621,189	1,797,448	2,979	100%	90.2%	1,544,919	1,767,120	2,654	87.4%
African American	200,014	244,084	245	13.6%	81.9%	184,029	238,844	211	77%
Hispanic	598,810	688,778	881	38.3%	86.9%	546,076	658,621	765	82.9%
White	768,353	808,239	1,699	45%	95.1%	764,245	816,178	1,551	93.6%
Econ. disadvantaged	706,886	828,262	744	46.1%	85.3%	653,067	805,663	596	81.1%
Writing									
All students	651,710	741,799	2,979	100%	87.9%	641,365	727,334	2,654	88.2%
African American	82,276	99,288	245	13.4%	82.9%	78,968	95,798	211	82.4%
Hispanic	230,244	277,373	881	37.4%	83%	216,003	262,475	765	82.3%
White	317,144	341,249	1,699	46%	92.9%	325,196	346,035	1,551	94%
Econ. disadvantaged	256,755	313,886	744	42.3%	81.8%	244,703	301,060	596	81.3%

[a] Number of students who met the testing requirement for graduation by passing end-of-course examinations and did not take any exit-level TAAS test in the spring of the year shown. These numbers are included in the number passing and number taking. *Source:* Texas Department of Education Web site, Accountability Standards Reports (2000-2001)

Table 8.5. Texas Public School Dropout Rates, 1995-1997

	1996-1997 dropout data, Grades 7-12				1995-1996 dropout data, Grades 7-12				Reduction to 6% standard: Actual change
Student group	Number of dropouts	Cumulative membership	Student group percent	Dropout rate	Number of dropouts	Cumulative membership	Student group percent	Dropout rate	
All students	26,901	1,705,972	100%	1.6%	29,207	1,662,578	100%	1.8%	-0.2
African American	4,737	240,142	14.1%	2%	5,397	234,175	14.1%	2.3%	-0.3
Hispanic	13,859	603,067	35.4%	2.3%	14,649	580,041	34.9%	2.5%	-0.2
White	7,894	815,175	47.8%	1%	8,639	802,509	48.3%	1.1%	-0.1
Econ. disadvantaged	9,393	595,036	34.9%	1.6%	9,608	555,318	33.4%	1.7%	-0.1

Table 8.6. Texas Public School Dropout Rates, 1997-1999

	1998-1999 dropout data, Grades 7-12				1997-1998 dropout data, Grades 7-12		
Student group	Number of dropouts	Cumulative membership	Student group percent	Dropout rate	Number of dropouts	Cumulative membership	Dropout rate
All students	25,592	1,773,117	100%	1.6%	27,550	1,743,139	1.6%
African American	5,682	248,748	14%	2.3%	5,152	244,987	2.1%
Hispanic	14,413	638,041	36%	2.3%	14,127	619,855	2.3%
White	7,006	833,274	47%	0.8%	7,734	828,660	0.9%
Econ. disadvantaged	9,391	616,720	34.8%	1.5%	9,911	626,080	1.6%

Table 8.7. Texas Public School Dropout Rates, 1998-2000

	1999-2000 dropout data, Grades 7-12				1998-1999 dropout data, Grades 7-12		
Student groups	Number of dropouts	Cumulative membership	Student group percent	Dropout rate	Number of dropouts	Cumulative membership	Dropout rate
All students	23,457	1,794,521	100%	1.3%	27,592	1,773,117	1.6%
African American	4,675	253,986	14.2%	1.8%	5,682	248,748	2.3%
Hispanic	12,540	658,869	36.7%	1.9%	14,413	638,041	2.3%
White	5,852	827,657	46.1%	0.7%	7,006	833,274	0.8%
Econ. disadvantaged	8,303	646,760	36%	1.3%	9,391	616,720	1.5%

Source: Texas Department of Education Web site, Accountability Standards Reports (1995-2000)

The tables do show improved test scores for African American students. But a question lingers: Is Texas really an example of what can be done for students of color? School districts and teacher preparation programs in Texas have restructured their curricula, experiences, and professional development to influence student outcomes and meet standards. Can we conclude that the Texas system is the best way to help students achieve? Success in Texas, as everywhere, will be determined over time.

North Carolina

North Carolina measures its public schools through the Accountability Basics and Control (ABCs) plan. In 1995, the General Assembly of North Carolina directed the state board of education to develop a new accountability plan that focuses on performance of public schools with a system of clear rewards and consequences. The plan was piloted in 10 North Carolina school systems and passed by the General Assembly in June 1996. The board of education subsequently implemented the ABCs of Public Education.

The ABCs of Public Education is a comprehensive plan to improve public schools in North Carolina that is based on three goals: (a) strong accountability, (b) an emphasis on the basics and high educational standards, and (c) providing schools with local control (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2002). Each school is held accountable for the progress of its students. The board of education created two types of annual goals: performance standards, which refer to the absolute achievement or the percentage of students' scores in a school at or above grade level, and growth standards, which are benchmarks set annually to measure a school's progress. The expected growth for each school is based on three factors: its previous performance; statewide average growth; and a statistical adjustment (regression to the mean), which is needed when test scores of the same students are compared from one year to the next. A formula is used to generate expected growth for each school.

Through North Carolina's ABCs accountability model, growth and performance standards are set for each elementary, middle, and high school in the state. End-of-grade and end-of-course test results and other selected components are used to measure each school's progress. State leaders hasten to state the feature that makes this model different from other accountability models is the expectation that all schools have the chance to meet the standards; all students can grow (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2002). This position is based on the contention that looking only at percentages of students who score at proficiency

levels adversely impacts schools of certain socioeconomic and demographic conditions.

Each school must have a 3-year improvement plan that includes strategies for improving student performance and takes into account the annual performance goals for the school set by the state board of education. The plans are amended as often as necessary to provide continuous student improvement. At the secondary level, additional factors are used to determine whether schools are making adequate progress, including an exit exam of essential skills.

Additional initiatives such as the nationally acclaimed Smart Start Program and Closing the Academic Achievement Gap were put into place to move all children toward higher achievement. Academic support programs are provided by the Historically Minority Colleges and Universities Coalition during the academic year and summers to help improve the achievement of minority children. Spearheaded by North Carolina Central University, the coalition provides intervention programs at member institutions such as Saint Augustine's College, Elizabeth City State University, Livingstone College, Pembroke State University, Johnson C. Smith University, and a host of other minority institutions in the state. Among other initiatives provided in support of higher standards and academic achievement of all students and schools in North Carolina are the More at Four prekindergarten program and the "First in America" challenge, issued by then-Governor James Hunt in his 1999 State of the State Address.

Likewise, legislative programs such as English as a Second Language and the Safe School initiative serve as additional support programs. Although the state has an integrated approach to aligning accountability standards with diversity, these programs tend to target those who are not achieving the standard. In most cases, they are minority children, those from low-income families, those from families who speak limited English, and those from poorer and rural school districts.

Achievement data for the state of North Carolina are somewhat similar to most states in the South. As seen in Table 8.8 (modified from ethnic distribution data in North Carolina public and charter schools), Whites make up the largest percentage of students in the state, with Blacks, Hispanics, Asians, and American Indians following (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2002). Of particular interest in these data is the high number of Blacks who attend charter schools. One wonders why such disparity exists, when in North Carolina, charter schools have to meet the same standards and accountability measures as public schools.

Table 8.8. Ethnic Distribution—North Carolina Schools (Fall 2000)

	Public Schools	Charter Schools
American Indian	18,651	221
Asian	23,576	164
Black	393,712	6,704
Hispanic	56,232	274
White	776,251	8,160

In February 2001 on the campus of Saint Augustine's College, a summit was held to find out from parents, students, teachers, administrators, and other interested stakeholders what they perceived were the grassroots reasons for the academic achievement gap and possible resolutions to closing that gap. Many parents and students felt that they were not receiving the support necessary to help students succeed. When asked why she chose a charter school over a regular public school, one parent responded, "I didn't feel like my children or I got what we needed to do well." Another responded, "I didn't feel as if I was getting the support we needed." When asked to clarify what was meant by "support," the parent replied, "Educational support, social support, and the physical support needed to feel comfortable in public schools." These and similar comments were echoed by many parents and students who participated in the summit. Participants said they feel more comfortable in a more intimate, nurturing, and mentoring setting. Additionally, the summit showed that parents thought that issues of diversity were not consistently being addressed, as they are often forced into charter schools because their children are not functioning well in a public school.

In 2001, a 50-point difference existed in the end-of-grade scores of Black students and White students. Black students and other minorities consistently scored lower on standardized tests than their White counterparts. In the following year, the scores of minority students increased, with Black students performing 20 points higher than the year before; however, the scores of White students also increased significantly. This result suggests that something is happening in North Carolina that is positive for all students but that a need still exists for more intervention as schools continue to improve the ABCs accountability effort.

Washington

In 1993, the Washington State Legislature adopted its Education Reform Act to establish common learning goals for all students in the state. Ac-

cording to the act, the goals "were intended to raise academic standards and ultimately student achievement . . . to provide opportunities for students to become responsible citizens, contributors to their own economic well-being and that of their families and community, and adults who enjoy productive, satisfying lives" (Washington State Board of Education, 2002a). A commission on student learning, comprising 11 members and appointed by the governor and the state board of education, was developed to administer much of the reform initiative. This commission was charged with the responsibility to develop challenging academic standards, assessments based on the standards, and a system to hold schools and school districts accountable for their results (Washington State Board of Education, 2002a).

The commission expired June 30, 1999, leaving its responsibilities associated with education reform with the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction (Washington State Board of Education, 2002a).

School improvement and accountability in Washington are guided by nine characteristics of high-performing schools:

- Clear and shared vision and purpose
- High standards and expectations for all students
- Effective instructional and administrative leadership
- High levels of teamwork and staff collaboration
- Curriculum and instruction aligned with standards and assessment measures
- Closely monitored teaching and learning
- Focused professional development in high-need areas
- School climates that support positive learning environment
- A high level of community and parental involvement (Washington State Board of Education, 2002b)

It is significant that Washington does not mention diversity or multiculturalism or use any such language in its accountability standards—which might lead one to believe that some students could have difficulty succeeding. But is diversity best addressed when we do something or when we do nothing? Perhaps not making an issue of diversity and focusing on achievement makes measurement more meaningful. The National Leadership Network is quoted on the state's School Improvement Process Web site: "Improvement is not achieved by focusing on results, but by focusing on improving the systems that create results" (Washington State Board of Education, 2002b). The state's not making a point of including diversity in its accountability standards could also be viewed as a "clean" way to promote equity.

Table 8.9. Washington Assessment of Student Learning–Reading Scores by Ethnicity

	1997	1998	1999	2000
American Indian	33.0	37.3	46.9	48.7
Asian	54.1	59.5	66.7	66.4
Black	35.4	39.3	47.7	48.2
Hispanic	27.6	31.3	39.4	40.4
White	61.5	65.3	71.1	72.1

Achievement data gathered from the Washington Assessment of Students Learning (WASL) shows that student scores have steadily improved for all groups from 1997 to 2000. Nevertheless, a significant disparity still existed between the scores of White students and those of other students. Table 8.9 shows the reading scores of fourth graders in the state from 1997-2000 by ethnic group (Washington State Board of Education, 2002c).

Washington, DC

In Washington, DC, school reform is facilitated through the Office of Educational Reform. This office provides the school community with "awareness opportunities regarding research-based, comprehensive educational reform" (District of Columbia Public Schools, 2002a). In collaboration with District of Columbia Public Schools offices, the Office of Educational Reform facilitates the procurement of contracts between the district's local schools and reform model developers. It also manages a facilitators institute, which designs ongoing staff development activities for school-based change facilitators and lead teachers. The Office of Educational Reform is also responsible for building collaborative networks among school communities, federal agencies, district administrators, and external partners.

Accountability for the District of Columbia Public School System is based on its nine components of comprehensive school reform:

1. An effective, research-based method and strategy
2. A comprehensive design with aligned components
3. Professional development
4. Measurable goals and benchmarks
5. Support within the school
6. Parental and community involvement
7. External technical support and assistance

8. Evaluation strategies
9. Coordination of resources

(District of Columbia Public Schools, 2002b)

This comprehensive school reform program includes diversity components in Items 1 and 2. The Office of Educational Reform advocates that the reform program employ "innovative strategies and proven methods for student learning, teaching, and school management that are based on reliable research and effective practices and have been replicated successfully in schools with diverse characteristics" (District of Columbia Public Schools, 2002c). The second reform statement outlines requirements specifically for diverse groups such as "low-income families, children with limited English proficiency, and children with disabilities to meet challenging State content and performance standards" (District of Columbia Public Schools, 2002d). In essence, the District of Columbia Public School System indirectly acknowledges diversity in its accountability plan. The measurement of accountability, however, tends to rest on specific reform models as opposed to a single standardized measurement.

The assessment plan is based on a satisfaction survey and student performance using the Stanford Achievement Test, now in its ninth edition (Stanford-9 tests). The satisfaction survey was administered in 1998 and 1999 to teachers, students, and parents. They were asked how favorably they rated various aspects of their individual school. The superintendent's executive summary declared that "with only a few exceptions, the surveys showed that a majority of respondents have positive attitudes about the issues that were covered" (District of Columbia Public Schools, 2002d). Issues covered included academic concerns, parental involvement, district and school environment, and district policies and actions. The survey was conducted by an outside agency and tied in closely with the district's nine comprehensive reform components.

The other measure used by the District of Columbia to measure accountability is student performance on Stanford-9 tests. According to school profile data, the test is administered to students in most grades in the fall and again in the spring. The results of these tests are used to measure student learning and to diagnose areas where students need help. Tables 8.10 and 8.11 present data for students in Grades 1 through 11 from 1997 to 2001 in math and reading (District of Columbia Public Schools, 2002e).

Although the data indicate the number of students scoring at basic or above levels each year on the Stanford-9 as progressive, scores tend to

Table 8.10. District of Columbia Systemwide Math: Students Scoring at Basic or Above

Grade	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
1	*	87%	83%	89%	89%
2	*	68%	69%	76%	76%
3	65%	69%	71%	81%	79%
4	*	60%	64%	74%	73%
5	*	51%	56%	63%	65%
6	48%	60%	59%	71%	67%
7	*	36%	36%	45%	44%
8	29%	41%	42%	46%	47%
9	*	39%	44%	49%	48%
10	11%	17%	20%	28%	28%
11	*	24%	25%	25%	28%

** An asterisk denotes an omitted grade during the first year of administration.*

Table 8.11. District of Columbia Systemwide Reading: Students Scoring at Basic or Above

Grade	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
1	86%	88%	86%	87%	89%
2	60%	71%	73%	75%	74%
3	62%	67%	68%	74%	69%
4	58%	69%	71%	75%	76%
5	68%	75%	76%	79%	80%
6	73%	84%	81%	86%	84%
7	*	71%	73%	77%	75%
8	70%	80%	80%	81%	81%
9	*	62%	63%	63%	63%
10	49%	53%	49%	53%	53%
11	50%	54%	52%	52%	53%

** An asterisk denotes an omitted grade during the first year of administration.*

decrease as students move to higher grades. Without the benefit of viewing the data in other ways, we cannot tell whether poorer performance is among a particular group of students, suggesting that interventions and reform models may not be as effective or directed at student achievement for some students. The nature of implementation of the District's reform models is selective, collaborating with the Office of Educational Reform in a facilitated process that could be a contributing factor in the declining student performance data.

Unlike other school systems mentioned in this chapter, the District of Columbia's has a significantly larger minority population than Whites. With 85.2% of those students being Black, an interesting case is made for the system's deemphasis on diversity in its accountability standards. A number of inferences could be made with regard to the transient nature of this geographic location in the country. But in a district where most of the school-age population is minority, can more than 50% of students regularly perform at or above the national average on a prominent standardized test? After all, only 4.4% of school-age students in the district are White.

An abundance of reform models are in place in the District of Columbia Public Schools, summarized in Table 8.12. A brief description of some of the models is provided below.

America's Choice School Design (formerly National Alliance for Restructuring Education)

This partnership of schools, districts, states, and leading national organizations works to change the educational system from classroom to statehouse through a five-point set of priorities. Known as design tasks, these priorities include standards and assessments, learning environments, high performance management, community service and support, and public engagement. America's Choice seeks to enable all graduating high school students to attain a Certificate of Initial Mastery, a credential representing a high standard of academic accomplishment.

Community for Learning

The Community for Learning is a data-based, comprehensive K-12 program that focuses on high academic achievement and positive student self-perception to enhance students' schooling and life opportunities. The program includes a site-specific implementation-planning framework that incorporates a schoolwide organizational structure as well as a coordinated system of instruction, family-community involvement, and related service delivery. The instructional component of the program, the Adaptive Learning Environments Model (ALEM), combines technical and instructional assistance with the diagnostic-prescriptive process and direct instruction.

Table 8.12. District of Columbia School Reform Models and Efforts

Updated model	Number of participating schools
America's Choice School Design	9
Comer	2
Community for Learning/ALEM	7
Co-Nect	1
Core Knowledge	1
CRESPAR	2
Different Ways of Knowing, Galef Institute	2
Efficacy	5
High Schools That Work	2
National Institute for Urban School Improvements	17
NICHD Research Project	9 (+3 control)
Success for All	19
Talent Development High School With Career Academies	1

Source: District of Columbia Public Schools, 2002a

Success for All

Success for All stresses reading and language arts and helps schools and classrooms in preventing academic deficiencies and in intervening, as needed, to overcome problems. This program, designed for Grades K-6, is based on the premise that all students can and should succeed. Success for All seeks to prevent later academic problems with preschool and kindergarten programs that prepare young children for later schooling as well as with its intervention programs, especially tutoring. Other intervention activities include 8-week assessments of student learning, cooperative learning, family involvement, and staff development and support.

(District of Columbia Public Schools, 2002c)

Despite the 13 reform models identified, only a few schools participate in those programs. As shown in Table 8.12, the Success for All program and the National Institute for Urban School Improvements lead with 19 and 17 schools participating, respectively. The rest of the programs have far fewer participants.

Despite all the initiatives that the district has implemented, limited assessment data are available to show how specific populations are faring

in the high-stakes standards race. As mentioned earlier, the limited data reviewed for this chapter indicate that performance rates decline as students matriculate through the system. Does this mean that the district is losing, winning, or breaking even in student achievement, accountability, and high-stakes standards?

Conclusion

We examined samples of the reform efforts, assessment, accountability, and diversity of approaches in three states and the District of Columbia. Each had different student populations but shared the same problems of school accountability and how to help children meet standards and assessments. It may or may not be addressed explicitly, but all of the locations have struggles with issues of diversity.

Equity in education goes far beyond distribution of resources, teacher assignments, transportation, and building maintenance, because those factors can be allocated. What cannot be mandated is equity in the relationship between the student and the school. Making sure that all students have an environment that is respectful, nurturing, supportive, and motivating is another agenda (Aldridge & Goldman, 2002).

Certain standards are intended for all students to achieve. Each year students across this nation are administered tests, and each year results are analyzed. In some instances, schools receive rewards or sanctions based on their students' performance on assessments. Consistently, states across this nation arrive at the same dilemma: African American and other minority children perform significantly lower than White children on high-stakes assessments.

Although the data reflect a significant lag in the assessment scores of poor and minority children, they also show that all student populations are making gains. This could mean that somewhere in the process we are doing something right, but because there is such disparity between the scores of minorities and Whites, something is also clearly wrong.

There is another side to this issue as well: the impact that teacher education programs have on student achievement. Standards mandate that we prepare highly qualified educators who can teach all children. We are charged with providing documentation that preservice teachers have "diverse" experiences. Like our P-12 partners, we receive rewards and sanctions reflecting our students' performance. Certainly, there should be accountability for programs that prepare teachers, but is it rational that they be held accountable for teachers in the schools when states have opened Pandora's box for entry into the profession? If so, people pursuing alter-

native routes to teacher education and the agencies that prepare them should be held accountable as well. Taking a course now and then, here and there on the Internet without being in touch with real situations does not work.

We believe teachers are concerned about the progress of their students. They want to be prepared with coursework and armed with the skills to teach all children. As they thrust themselves into the classroom, most understand the need to develop nurturing, mentoring, and motivation skills as they matriculate through their institutions. If all teachers would concentrate on preparing themselves in these ways, students will have a better chance of achieving in this complex academic environment.

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9

MAKING IT WORK: CONCLUSIONS REGARDING DIVERSITY AS A UNIFYING THEME IN STANDARDS, ASSESSMENTS, AND ACCOUNTABILITY

Mary Hatwood Futrell and Joel Gómez, The George Washington University

Standards. Assessments. Accountability. Highly qualified. Adequate yearly progress. Consequences. All are terms that have become part of the lexicon describing the current education reform movement. The purpose of this chapter is threefold: (a) to focus on how education reform initiatives can be implemented to assure all students equal opportunities to meet higher academic expectations; (b) to scrutinize the ongoing diversity issues in the education standards, assessments, and accountability initiatives; and (c) to recognize the issue of diversity as a unifying theme at every level of the current reform movement.

Overview

Virtually every state has developed and implemented content standards to which schools, students, and educators, particularly teachers, are held accountable. The United States today has in place the most far-reaching accountability system in the history of American education. Standards exist for virtually every subject area, and statewide tests have been developed to measure student achievement in the core subject areas. There are also standards for defining accomplished teaching and for accrediting schools of education. All these measures have been designed to strengthen the quality of education in America.

In addition, there are broad consequences for students and schools that fail to achieve at the level designated by states and by the federal government through its passage of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. To date, however, schools and school districts have been muddling through the implementation process, trying to understand exactly what the standards mean and how to ensure that their teachers, counselors, and administrators know how to implement them.

The previous eight chapters discuss standards, assessments, and accountability within the context of diversity, teacher preparation, and student achievement. The consensus is that these issues are not stand-alone

issues but part of a broader context. This broad context includes the work done by legislative and judicial bodies, state and local education agencies, teacher education programs, teacher education accrediting bodies, and, ultimately, teachers and parents. Within this perspective, the authors herein describe various elements that need to be aligned and blended to plan, create, and implement educational programs that address the academic needs, aspirations, and potential of all students.

Changing Demographics

As authors in this book have discussed, the standards, assessments, and accountability movement (hereafter referred to as the accountability movement) needs to take into account the growing numbers of minority and poor students. Current demographic trends indicate that the number of minority students in this country is substantial and continues to grow. Although poor and minority students have always been found in urban districts, their distribution has now spread to neighboring suburban schools. A decade ago, the distribution of Latino students, for example, was concentrated in the Southwest, California, New York, Illinois, Florida, and New Jersey. Now their distribution has spread to localities that had few or no Latinos in the past. Raleigh, NC, currently has one of the fastest growing Latino populations in the country (Kindler, 2002).

Just as the number of minorities has grown in this country during the past decades, so has the number and percentage of students living in poverty. Carter and Larke, in chapter 4 of this book, establish that the percentage of children living in poverty increased from 14.9% in 1970 to 21.1% in 1993. In 1998, about one of every five children below the age of 18 lived below the poverty level set in that year.

The growth of minority student populations in increasing numbers of states and districts translates to practically every P-12 teacher's having poor and minority students in his or her classroom. The implicit suggestion exists that just as diversity and poverty issues in our educational systems have not been satisfactorily addressed in the past, they will continue to be perfunctorily addressed now and in the future (Futrell & Rotberg, 2002; Meier, Stewart, & England, 1989).

It is evident that the academic needs of poor and minority students are not being met. It is also evident that whatever educational systems have done in the past has not worked and is still not working (Lockwood & Secada, 1999). What does not seem to be evident is what will work in providing all students, but especially poor and minority students, with equitable opportunities to succeed to the highest extent possible academi-

cally. In finding a solution, it is imperative to identify what has not worked in the past and to find the fortitude and resources to eliminate those elements from our current educational practices. Furthermore, what does work must be incorporated into the accountability movement.

Standards and Accountability: Déjà Vu All Over Again?

The P-12 accountability movement has had an unprecedented impact at the national level on governmental and nongovernmental organizations that define standards for preservice and inservice teacher preparation standards. Legal decisions such as *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), *Lau v. Nichols* (1974), and *Plyler v. Doe* (1982) have also moved national organizations to respond to issues of excellence and equity in education.

Although legal decisions played a major role in defining education policy between 1950 and the early 1980s, the current education reform movement is being led by a new team of reformers consisting of the federal government, state legislatures, corporate leaders, and foundations. An additional dimension to the reform movement has also emerged: accountability. The accountability movement during the past 2 decades has been an integral factor in many school reform efforts.

In 1983, a presidential commission wrote *A Nation at Risk*, reporting its assessment of America's education system. In 1986, The Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession proposed the development of a national certification process for America's teachers. Three years later, in another unprecedented presidential act, the National Education Goals Panel was established to monitor the progress of schools toward achieving eight national education goals. In response, states increased high school graduation requirements, lengthened the school year, and added more tests (Mondale & Patton, 2001). It was also in the 1980s that national professional organizations, led by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, began developing national subject area standards, partially in response to the budding accountability movement.

In the 1990s, the U.S. Department of Education's Improving American Schools Act further gave strength to the accountability movement by offering the following mandate:

> By the beginning of the 1997-98 school year, States will develop or adopt challenging State content standards, in at least reading and math, which specify what all children are expected to know and be able to do, and challenging performance standards which show the level children will be expected to attain in mastering the material in the content standards. (No Child Left Behind Act of 2001)

The consensus among authors in this volume is that schools need standards and related accountability measures to improve their ability to educate all students. Equally as strong is the belief that standards and accountability measures on their own are not sufficient to improve educational opportunities for all students, especially poor and minority students.

Convergence or Divergence

Two strands of thought are represented in the previous eight chapters. The first strand states that the accountability movement is here to stay. Further, it suggests that this movement has and will continue to have far-reaching implications for students, schools, and the teaching profession. Standards, assessments, and accountability are interwoven and when taken together forge a powerful force for change that cannot be ignored.

The second strand looks at how the issue of diversity is being affected by the accountability initiatives and how diversity has been either overlooked or deliberately ignored in the current reform efforts. For example, according to Orfield and Eaton (1996), "Racial inequality has been rarely mentioned in the national debates on the 'excellence' movement to raise educational standards" (p. 23). The magnitude of changing student demographics, and thus the citizenry of our nation, and the political and economic changes shaping the future of America support the notion that we can no longer afford to ignore diversity as a critical educational factor. Thus, it should be evident that the issue of diversity is central to the accountability movement and the future of America.

Today, more than 54 million students attend elementary and secondary schools: 62% are White, 38% are from minority groups, 25% live in poverty, and 13% have special needs (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). Diversity in our school populations will define the success of the current accountability movement, and, conversely, the accountability movement will determine whether all members in a pluralistic society will indeed be full participants in our democracy. The very composition of our student and teaching populations will impact efforts to raise standards and to assess progress in achieving them. As Nicola Alexander (1998) pointed out, "The promise of standards-based policies lies in their capacity to raise the quality of the courses [and teachers] to which all students are exposed." So the question becomes How do we implement the accountability movement so that it benefits all children?

Educational Expectations

Concerted efforts must be made to ensure that every student is prepared to meet the educational goals defined by his or her state and to understand the relationship of education to the challenges defining our society. Efforts must be made to ensure that students, parents, and educators know what the standards are, how they will be assessed, and the resulting consequences. (The issue of student and parental accountability is discussed later in this chapter.)

The issue is preparing each boy and girl for life, for tomorrow, and for the challenges it will bring. Specifically, students need to be told and need to understand the academic expectations they will be required to meet to be promoted to the next grade or to graduate from high school. Within every school—inner city, rural, or suburban—students must be taught the curriculum that reflects the standards and assessments that will be used to determine their academic progress. In other words, educational programs beginning in kindergarten and first grade must be structured based on what is needed in 12th grade to successfully complete schooling. The issue, however, is more than just the promotion or the graduation of our students.

Educational Paradox: One-Size-Fits-All Versus Tracking

Embedded in this accountability movement are several educational paradoxes or dilemmas. School districts and states have spent considerable time trying to align the standards, curricula, and assessments that will ensure that students are taught the content on which they will be assessed. It is yet to be determined, however, whether the standards are comparable across districts and states.

Authors of the preceding chapters identify a number of additional issues with regard to educational and accountability measures as they relate to poor and minority students. Equity and excellence is one of these issues. Can there be progress in educational excellence if academic gains elude the significant number of student populations consisting of poor and minority students? The answer is no. The accountability movement cannot be considered a movement for improving academic achievement for all students if it fails to improve the academic achievement of "majority" minority populations in our nation's schools.

Another question is whether schools have done enough to align standards, curricula, and assessments and whether implementation can be achieved while maintaining the existing tracking system that stratifies the education students receive in our schools. Again, the answer is no. The

accountability movement will become a misnomer and the achievement gap will become wider if the current curriculum organizational structure—tracking, which stratifies the learning process and the children affected by it—remains in place. Reformers must address the sociopolitical milieu that holds tracking in place if no child is to be left behind.

Wheelock (1992) states, "Clearly, tracking hasn't helped schools prepare students to meet the demands of the workplace" (p. iv). Nor will tracking enable students to meet the standards mandated by state and federal legislation. Wheelock goes on to say, "The matching of students to different tracks carried with it racial, ethnic and socio-class overtones from the very beginning" (p. v). An educational structure that denies increasing numbers of students the foundation that will enable them to achieve at their highest academic potential and that will prepare them to be part of our economic and political mainstreams should not be continued. All forms of tracking must be drastically restricted or eliminated in our schools if all students are to reach the highest levels of academic achievement possible.

The current accountability movement will fail millions of children unless states and school districts have the political, financial, and educational will to dramatically restructure the system to guarantee that every student is taught the content on which he or she will be tested. This is particularly critical in resource-poor school districts that, in addition to tracking students, are often unable to offer the same quality of programs as resource-rich school districts. After all, if all students will be required to pass the same test, they should be required to study the same curricular content, especially in the core subject areas. Furthermore, those courses should be of comparable quality, regardless of where students attend school. If not, as Elmore (2002) rightfully points out, "The increased pressure of test-based accountability alone is likely to aggravate the existing inequalities between low-performing and high-performing schools and students" (p. 37).

A Core Curriculum?

What would be the impact of modifying the current educational structure with regard to diversity and the accountability movement? What would be the impact of more heterogeneous academic groupings in our schools, more rigorous curricula, and more opportunities for students to prepare for the challenges ahead?

It might mean defining a core curriculum for America's schools. A core curriculum means that all students would study basically the same

content. Although this approach might sound un-American, a few states have already implemented a core curriculum for their students. More important, in America there is already a de facto core curriculum in place aligned with assessments, especially for students who are enrolled in the academic or gifted and talented tracks in schools. The curricula for these two tracks are closely aligned across the nation with the SAT and ACT, which dictate what students need to know and be able to do to pass either assessment.

Studies show that very few racial or language minority students or students from poor families are enrolled in the academic or gifted and talented tracks. Thus, again, the question must be raised whether all students deserve an equal opportunity to be successful in meeting the academic requirements established by their state boards of education. States have the right to assess student knowledge, but students also, according to *Turlington v. Florida* (1983) and Paul Barton of the Educational Testing Service (2001), have the right to be taught that material on which they will be tested.

Concurrently, schools must have the instructional resources to support and enhance student learning, including ensuring that course sequencing is designed to help students build a solid educational foundation as they progress from one grade level to the next. That means schools must enhance the quality of teaching and learning by having adequate resources such as well-defined curricula, textbooks, technologies, and classroom environments that support and encourage opportunities to learn.

Furthermore, the curriculum must reflect the standards and assessments by which the content that is taught will be measured. It should also reflect the diverse cultures from which the students come. For example, math, language arts, science, and history curricula should use examples that depict people from diverse parts of our nation and the world, as well as individual cultural experiences. By including such examples, the curriculum will be enriched and will have more relevance to children, including giving them an understanding of the cultures and experiences they bring with them.

Preparing Students to Achieve at Higher Levels: Being Proactive

What can be done to prepare children for school and to meet higher academic expectations? Two examples illustrate possible strategies.

In Montgomery County, MD, the decision was made to implement an all-day kindergarten program to better prepare children for school. The program monitored the reading progress made by 16,000 youngsters

over 2 years in kindergarten and first grade. The report found that not only did achievement rise for all students involved in the program in high-poverty schools but also that low-income students showed bigger gains than their higher income counterparts. The gap between higher scoring White and Asian students and their African American and Latino peers narrowed by as much as 11 points on some measures (Nielsen & Cooper-Martin, 2002).

Another example of maintaining high expectations while opening the door of opportunity for more students is the Young Scholars Program in Fairfax County, VA. There, the decision was made to enhance the quality of all educational programs but in particular to encourage more minority students to enroll in the gifted and talented programs. Sixteen of the lowest performing schools were targeted, and teachers received special training to identify and work with minority children as part of the gifted and talented program in those schools. To participate in the program, all students selected must meet the same criteria. Fairfax County, which has a language minority population of approximately 20% and where at least 25% of its students receive free breakfast and lunch, has also decided to waive the fee for all students desiring to take Advanced Placement or International Baccalaureate exams. To date, 50% of all juniors and seniors in the county are taking these tests.

These are but two examples of school districts' being proactive in helping their students, especially poor and minority students, understand the educational challenges they face and in preparing them to meet those challenges.

In both districts, however, the superintendents admitted that more has to be done to address the educational needs of language minority students. This is a national issue, not just a local concern. Forty-one percent of the nation's teachers taught limited English proficient (LEP) students in 1999-2000, but only 12.5% had 8 or more hours of LEP training in the previous 3 years (Southeast Center for Teaching Quality, 2002). The issue of preparing teachers for language diversity in schools must be addressed if all children are to learn equally.

The words *convergence or divergence* in the title of this book aptly refer to questions of multicultural education and the standards movement. Chapter 4 in this volume discusses the implications of multicultural education for student academic achievement. One of the tenets of multicultural education is the use of a culturally responsive pedagogy in the instructional process. How can a teacher move a student forward academically if the teacher cannot tap into his or her students' prior knowl-

edge or community funds of knowledge (Milk, Mercado, & Sapiens, 1992)? Poor and minority students do not come to school with a tabula rasa on which to inscribe their experiences. They generally come to school with a wealth of experiences that teachers typically cannot or will not use as a foundation upon which they can build academic concepts (Chamot, 1993). Teachers must know how to use the prior knowledge and cultural experiences of students, including those of poor and minority students, to assist them in problem-solving exercises in social studies, mathematics, science, and other subjects.

First Line of Resources: Highly Qualified, Certified Teachers

To close the achievement gap, students must have exceptionally well-qualified teachers who are certified to teach the subject or grade level they have been assigned and who are compassionate about teaching children to reach their maximum potential. The successful implementation of the accountability movement and its impact on students is directly related to the capacity of the teaching profession to implement standards and assessments. Furthermore, the readiness of the profession to be held accountable for ensuring that no child is left behind is tied directly to the integration of the standards into the teacher preparation program and the quality of those programs coupled with what Elmore (2002) describes as "the beliefs and practices that people in the organization share" (p. 37).

Teachers, counselors, and administrators (hereafter referred to as teachers) must be the first line of resources in schools. Whatever the composition of the teaching profession (it should reflect the diversity that defines our schools and that in turn will define America), every teacher must be able to demonstrate his or her ability to teach the content area and to teach all students.

Teachers—experienced and inexperienced—must have the skills and knowledge to implement the standards, develop the curricula content reflecting those standards, assess students' knowledge and understanding of the content being taught, and have the ability to disaggregate the assessment data and use the analysis to improve the quality of their teaching. All teachers must develop a repertoire of teaching strategies that can be used to respond to the diverse needs of students in their classes. Furthermore, improving a school entails improving "capacity" (the knowledge and skills of teachers), changing teachers' command of content and how to teach it, and helping teachers understand where their students are in their academic development (Elmore, 2002).

Teacher efficacy, another component of multicultural education, plays an important role in assisting students to learn to the highest standards. Teacher efficacy allows a teacher to believe that he or she can teach all children and positively influence their lives. Can a teacher truly assist his or her poor, immigrant, and other minority students achieve to the highest standards if he or she believes that their "heritage" provides an impediment to their learning? Beyond trying hard, teachers need to accept that all children are born with the ability to learn and to problem solve. They need to learn how to recognize how their students learn and how they problem solve to assist them in reaching the highest academic standards possible (Anstrom, 1999).

Unfortunately, hegemonic behaviors result in disregard for diversity and multiculturalism and impede the ability of poor and minority students to reach high academic standards. Chapter 4 in this volume defines hegemonic behaviors as those behaviors that members of a dominant group employ in a subtle, noncohesive, and often condescending manner to oppress members of subordinate groups. Further, these behaviors have grave negative implications for poor and minority students, because "[they] may be in a situation in which they know they have been devalued or handed an injustice but cannot identify it because all the rules have been followed. . . . The irony of this practice is that students consent to a behavior that devalues them as students. . . . Hegemonic behavior in the classroom is very subtle yet very powerful, because it allows participation but does not empower students" (pp. 63-64 herein).

Multiculturalism promotes respect for different learning styles and for the principles of constructivism. Constructivist learning negates the traditional transmission model and accepts that the student's knowledge base and personal experiences become key factors in the learning process.

In addition, teachers need to learn to better manage the instructional process to ensure that their teaching is more content specific and thus more focused on student learning if they are to assure greater educational equity in our schools. Students are more likely to acquire the knowledge and skills that will prepare them to successfully enhance the quality of their lives and the communities in which they live if the curricula in elementary and secondary schools are modified to focus on student learning, especially on students from racial, language, and economically diverse backgrounds. The accountability movement is not a one-size-fits-all proposition. It must be tailored to reflect the diverse educational needs of students while keeping the expectations for academic achievement at a high level.

Institutional Capacity

While policy makers at all levels of our government have invested enormous amounts of time and effort developing the current standards, assessments, and accountability strategies, they have not, unfortunately, committed to invest the necessary resources to ensure their implementation. Responding affirmatively to the challenges set forth by the accountability movement will require policy makers and communities to ensure that every school district has the resources necessary to guarantee quality education for its students. It will also be imperative for schools of education to be given the resources to restructure their programs and to develop scholarships to attract more academically talented students.

Resources must be made available to provide support for faculty in schools of education to participate in programs designed to enhance their professional development and to work with states and school districts to ensure that teacher preparation programs reflect the new standards. For instance, professional development training that will enable teachers and teacher educators to more effectively teach students from diverse backgrounds is essential to ensuring academic success in every community. Resources must be available to enable all levels of the educational system to respond proactively to the accountability movement, especially in communities where poverty, not race, will be the determining factor of individual and schoolwide academic success.

All students should have access to computers and to instructional opportunities, including tutorial programs that enhance their understanding of what is being taught, and should be enrolled in smaller classes, where their individual learning needs can be more directly addressed. Establishing preschool programs for all 4-year-olds and providing families the option of enrolling 3-year-old children, especially those who live in poor communities, would help build a stronger educational foundation for children and would better prepare them to achieve the academic goals they will be required to meet.

Other issues of importance in planning and implementing educational programs that enable all students to learn include establishing data systems in schools to direct the instructional process, using research at the school level to answer questions related to educating poor and minority students, and recruiting and preparing candidates in teacher training programs who are predisposed to and who have the ability to teach diverse student populations. These and the issues discussed in this chapter strongly emphasize that setting standards and strong accountability are not enough to enable all students to learn to high standards. Teachers must also be

able to demonstrate their resourcefulness and effectiveness in enabling all students to achieve at their highest possible academic potential.

Accountability and Schools of Education

Although the sensitivity to prepare all teachers to meet the academic needs of all students exists among teacher education programs and accrediting institutions, the ability to recognize or the commitment to address this sensitivity has not yet been fully realized. One need only look at student achievement data to realize that poor and minority students are not faring any better now than in past decades. Is the continued low academic performance of poor and minority students related in part to how teachers are being prepared and how they are teaching in the classroom? Whatever the problems and probable solutions, the fact remains that the strategies used to assist diverse student populations in achieving the high standards being mandated by states and society have failed and are continuing to fail in providing equitable educational opportunities for all students. These shortcomings and these failures are more than academic. They also reflect long-term economic and political ramifications for students and for the nation as a whole.

Simply aligning the standards, curricula, and assessments at the P-12 school level, however, will not be enough. The P-12 standards-based accountability movement must also redefine schools of education and how teachers, counselors, and administrators are prepared to teach future generations of students. Schools of education must face the reality of the educational cultural changes that are occurring. They must also ensure that curricula and standards are aligned with this reality and that graduates are prepared to teach to those standards.

Teacher preparation programs and curricula must be redesigned to better address issues of culturally relevant pedagogy and cultural connectedness to the students they will teach. Colleges, universities, and school districts must also do more. A major challenge facing colleges and universities is to provide performance-based evidence that their graduates can teach their subject area, assess their students, analyze the data, and use the findings to adjust and improve their teaching.

Teachers and other school officials, including teacher educators, must understand the political, social, and educational complexities of the goals to be achieved to make this movement beneficial, not punitive, for all students. This means they must work together as a team rather than as independent entities and must learn from each other's efforts.

Partnering for Better Results for All

A good example of partnering to align P-12 standards with those at the college and university level is reflected in the work described by several authors in this book. The Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC), the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) have worked diligently, in some cases for more than a decade, to develop standards and strategies describing what accomplished teachers need to know and be able to do and have worked to align them with the P-12 content standards.

As pointed out in the relevant chapters, the standards defined by INTASC, NBPTS, and NCATE will help the teaching profession better ensure that students are prepared by ensuring that their teachers are prepared to teach them. These initiatives will play a major role in defining and shaping schools of education to be more responsive to the reforms defining elementary and secondary schools and, by association, teacher preparation programs. As a result, these initiatives, coupled with the accountability movement, will redefine what accomplished teaching means. How schools and school districts respond to the accountability movement and to the impact it will have on our diverse student populations and our teaching force will also impact teaching as a profession, especially the ability of districts to attract and retain teachers.

All three—INTASC, NBPTS, and NCATE—have addressed the issue of diversity in their standards. Some of their standards are very explicit. Others are not. Although these three national organizations have responded to diversity issues in the standards that they have developed, they still face the problem of how to implement these standards so that they remain true to diversity issues.

To date, only about 5% of new teachers entering the profession are from minority groups (Wise & Gollnick, 1996), and only 11% of nationally certified teachers are minorities (Serafini, 2002). More needs to be done to recruit and retain new teachers, especially minority candidates, into teaching. In addition, NBPTS and school districts must do more to encourage and support minority candidates to seek national certification. Nationally certified teachers must be recruited and retained to teach in our inner city and rural schools just as aggressively as they are being sought to teach in the suburban schools. Toward this end, all schools of education, including colleges and universities with high African American and Hispanic student enrollments, should make a more concerted

effort to integrate the INTASC and NBPTS standards in their curricula and to support teachers seeking national certification.

As noted in chapters 2 and 3, NCATE has probably been the most definitive and assertive in making diversity a priority and in aligning its standards with those of INTASC and NBPTS. Currently, 550 schools of education, including a number of historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs), are NCATE (2001) accredited. NCATE has developed standards that place great responsibility on teacher education programs to prepare teachers who can demonstrate that they can teach diverse student populations. All are required to provide performance-based evidence of their efforts to implement the new NCATE standards.

Unfortunately, a number of teacher education programs have found it difficult living up to these standards. HBCUs, for instance, which produce approximately 40% of the nation's minority teachers, are struggling (as are many other schools of education) to meet the new Title II and NCATE standards. It is absolutely imperative that all schools of education develop policies, curricula, and strategies to better prepare teachers who can meet the standards defined by these three groups.

Equally important, school districts, states, colleges and universities, and professional organizations such as NBPTS and NCATE must do more to retain and enhance the quality of the current teaching force. There are currently 6 million men and women who have been prepared and are certified to teach (National Governors Association, 2001). One goal must be to develop incentives and professional work environments that will encourage the most talented and qualified in that pool to remain or return to teaching. If this goal can be met, especially in urban schools, the "teacher shortage" can be overcome, and a highly qualified, certified teacher in every classroom in America could be guaranteed. Achieving that goal could also help diversify the composition of the teaching profession.

Unfortunately, there is reason to be concerned that the current accountability movement may have a negative impact on the recruitment and retention of teachers because of its narrow, restrictive tendencies. Teachers will be less likely to enter and remain in the profession if what they teach will be dictated by policy makers who have no concept of the effects of their decisions on the classroom. They will also not enter the profession if they will be held accountable for outcomes over which they have little if any control and if they do not have the instructional resources to do their job.

The Missing Link: Student and Parent Accountability

One final point. Virtually all the literature on the standards, assessments, and accountability policies reveals a critical void—the lack of focus on the responsibilities of two of the most critical players in this reform movement: students and parents. Considerable effort has been expended to make sure students and parents are aware of the standards and the fact the standards are performance based, but not what they should be held accountable for. Yes, students and parents must understand fully what the standards are, how and when students will be assessed, and the consequences they will face. But students and parents must also realize that they are key players in their own destiny.

Whether or not students successfully achieve at higher academic levels is directly linked to the expectations and responsibilities they and their parents personally assume in meeting that goal (Goodwin & Arens, 2002). All the key players, including students and parents from minority and poor communities, need to understand that the accountability movement is here to stay and that they have responsibilities to fulfill. Students and parents must help assume the mantra of educational accountability if indeed every child in every community is to benefit positively from this effort. A wise person once said, "Success has many fathers, but failure is an orphan." If we all work together, no child need be an educational orphan.

This movement is not only an educational shift; it is also an attitudinal and cultural shift for individual students and their families. For example, many students assume that they will not succeed and therefore give up and drop out of school rather than take a chance of failing. What can schools and communities do to help build students' confidence and to prepare them to succeed? What can be done to change the attitudes of African American and Hispanic boys and girls, regardless of their socioeconomic status, to instill in them that they can and should excel academically? One solution is to develop and sustain support structures such as those described in this volume that will help these students meet the academic expectations established for them.

In addition, schools and other community organizations can offer after-school and tutorial programs to help students with their studies and mentoring programs to help students understand what is expected of them. Teachers can help develop more confidence and positive attitudes in students to set high academic expectations for themselves and to pursue courses of study that will prepare them to meet those expectations. Teachers can also encourage students by instilling in them the memory of pre-

vious generations of boys and girls, teenagers and young adults just like them, who, in many U.S. communities, went on strike not to weaken educational requirements but to demand more homework and Advanced Placement courses while decrying the practice of social promotion (Mondale & Patton, 2001). That demand for academic excellence transpired long before the current movement was conceived and must be the ongoing mission of this generation of students.

Further, parents in too many families do not understand the standards movement or assume that there is nothing they can do to help their children. Parents want more accountability in the schools, but they do not want more bureaucracy. So the question becomes How do educators empower parents to be more responsible for the education of their children, to accept more responsibility for their children's schooling? (Rotberg, Bernstein, & Ritter, 2001, p. 20). What can educators do to ensure that parents know where to get help for their children? In a number of communities, schools and school districts sponsor seminars and other programs for parents to provide them with information about how they can enhance their children's educational success. These programs underscore the fact that the value families place on education is more of an incentive for students to learn than any other factor. If educators are to fight against failure and are to build multiple layers of support to ensure academic success for all students, both students and parents must understand their responsibilities in this accountability movement.

Conclusion

It has been said that human history has become more and more a race between education and catastrophe. It is clear that America's population will continue to grow and diversify even more rapidly than in past generations. It is also clear that education will be the unifying factor in our increasingly pluralistic society. With those points of clarity, it is hoped educators have learned from the lessons of history.

The current standards, assessment, and accountability movement sweeping the nation can help or hinder in unifying this nation's pluralistic society. Educators are standing at the crossroads in their efforts to achieve that unity. Our nation must finally commit to achieve what it has not been able to thus far: ensure that every person in our society has the opportunity to be educated well and therefore prepared to be lifelong learners in an increasingly technological, information-oriented, intercultural, global society. Otherwise, our educational struggles can once again fail to take advantage of the opportunity to level the educational playing

field and assure a quality education for every child. The current accountability movement has its strengths and weaknesses. America should build on the strengths of this reform movement and develop strategies to overcome the weaknesses in our educational systems.

Whether or not we succeed will depend on the willingness of policy makers and the public, including parents, to involve educators as full partners in the reformation of the education system to improve the quality of education for all children. Those reforms must in turn be sustained by a commitment of resources to guarantee that all children in America attend schools that are fully equipped to educate them to become full participants in all facets of society. Such a commitment would do more to ensure the future unity of America than anything else.

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ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Norvella P. Carter is associate professor of education and endowed chair of urban education in the Department of Teaching, Learning, and Culture at Texas A&M University, College Station. She earned a B.S. in special education and a Master's degree in administration and supervision from Wayne State University in Detroit, followed by a Ph.D. from the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences at Loyola University of Chicago. Carter is a former chair of the AACTE Committee on Multicultural Education and currently serves on the Board of Examiners for National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. She has numerous publications to her credit that focus on the preparation of teachers for urban classrooms, teacher efficacy, building resilience in children, and teacher induction. She served as transitional editor for *Action in Teacher Education* and editor of the popular book *Women to Women*.

Beverly L. Downing is an American Council on Education fellow at North Carolina A&T State University. She is former chair of the Division of Education at Saint Augustine's College in Raleigh, NC. Downing has held numerous appointments throughout the country on accreditation and standards development. She attended Livingstone College in Salisbury, NC, where she received her B.S. in health and physical education teacher education with a minor in psychology. She earned her M.A. from Virginia's Hampton Institute (University) in secondary education and special education and her Ph.D. in pedagogy from Middle Tennessee State University.

Mary Hatwood Futrell is dean of the Graduate School of Education and Human Development at The George Washington University in Washington, DC. Her education background includes a B.A. in business education from Virginia State College and an M.A. in secondary education and an Ed.D. in educational policy studies from The George Washington University. Futrell creates partnerships with professional organizations, school districts, governmental agencies, and other colleges and universities to advance improvements in education and the human development professions. She is former president of the National Education Association and the Virginia Education Association. She is currently president of Education International, which represents 24 million educators in 147 countries. She also serves as a member of the UNESCO High-Level Commission on Education for All and on the boards of the National Commis-

sion on Teaching and America's Future, the Kettering Foundation, and the Institute for Educational Leadership. In addition, she is chair of the Holmes Partnership Board of Directors.

Joel Gómez is interim associate dean for research and director of the Institute of Education Policy Studies at The George Washington University Graduate School of Education and Human Development in Washington, DC. He also serves as the codirector of the Center for the Study of Language and Education and principal investigator of the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs, funded by the U.S. Department of Education. Gómez has an Ed.D. in higher education administration from The George Washington University and an M.A. in Latin American Studies and a B.A. in liberal arts from the University of Texas at Austin. He is past president of the National Association for Bilingual Education in Washington, DC.

Jacqueline Jordan Irvine is Charles Howard Candler Professor of Urban Education in the Division of Educational Studies at Emory University in Atlanta, GA. Her work has had substantial influence on the way educators and researchers think about issues of culturally responsive teaching, high-quality opportunities for all students, and the connection of theory with practice. She has received the Outstanding Writing Award from AACTE, has delivered the Association's Hunt Lecture, and was awarded the 2003 Margaret B. Lindsey Award for Distinguished Research in Teacher Education. Her work has also been acknowledged by the American Educational Research Association and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Her books include *Black Students and School Failure, Growing Up African American in Catholic Schools, Critical Knowledge for Diverse Teachers and Learners, Culturally Responsive Lesson Planning for Elementary and Middle Grades,* and *Educating Teachers for a Diverse Society.*

Deneese L. Jones is associate professor in the Department of Curriculum and former associate dean of the Graduate School at the University of Kentucky. She was an American Council on Education fellow at the University of Kansas during 2002-2003. She received a B.S. in elementary education from Texas Woman's University and an M.Ed. in reading and a Ph.D. in curriculum and instruction from Texas A&M University. She is chair of the President's Commission on Diversity at the University of

Kentucky and serves as codirector of research for the Collaborative Center for Literacy Development. She has written numerous articles on literacy and equity pedagogy, complex instruction, status treatments, and culturally responsive instruction. She is former editor of *Action in Teacher Education.*

Patricia J. Larke is professor and coordinator of graduate programs in the Department of Teaching, Learning, and Culture at Texas A&M University, College Station. Her research interests are multicultural education, educating teachers for diverse classrooms, and mentoring. She is the developer of the Multicultural Mentoring Project, a nationally known program designed to educate preservice teachers for diverse classrooms. She serves on the board of the National Association for Multicultural Education and is a member of the Board of Examiners for the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

Fannye E. Love is chair of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction and professor of elementary education at the University of Mississippi. Before moving to Ole Miss, she was chair of the Department of Education at LeMoyne-Owen College in Memphis, TN. She received her B.S. from Mississippi Valley State University, her M.Ed. in reading from the University of Mississippi, and her Ph.D. in curriculum and instruction from Kansas State University. She has authored numerous articles and presented papers at conferences in the areas of reading, violence, classroom management, diverse learners, and early childhood education. She has served as a member of the Board of Examiners for the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and on the AACTE Committee on Multicultural Education. She currently is an AACTE representative on the NCATE Unit Accreditation Board.

Sylvia A. Mason is interim chair of the Division of Education at Saint Augustine's College in Raleigh, NC. She attended Appalachian State University in Boone, NC, where she received her B.S. in speech language pathology. She earned her M.Ed. from North Carolina Central University and her Ph.D. from the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. Mason has extensive experience in teacher education and preschool disabilities.

Nita A. Paris is assistant professor and graduate program coordinator in the Department of Secondary and Middle Grades Education at Kennesaw

State University (GA). She holds a B.S. and an M.Ed. from Texas Woman's University, a B.S.N. from Northwestern State University (LA), and a Ph.D. in educational psychology/applied cognition and development from the University of Georgia. She has been a teacher and administrator in public schools for 15 years. Her research interests are standards-based reform and analogical thinking and recursive processes in learning.

Cristina Rios is associate professor and former associate dean in the School of Education at Indiana University-South Bend. Her Ph.D. in higher education administration and leadership is from Claremont Graduate University (CA). She has expertise in both Mexican and U.S. higher education and has conducted in-depth comparative research on accreditation policies in both countries. Her background includes interdisciplinary and intercultural teaching and research and a wide range of scholarly interests. Among her areas of expertise are assessment of student competencies and learning outcomes, accreditation, leadership, and educational policies. Rios is a member of the Board of Examiners for the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

Jerrie Cobb Scott is director of the Office of Diversity at the University of Memphis (TN). Having received her B.S. in education from the University of Toledo (OH) and her M.A. and Ph.D. from the University of Michigan, she is a linguist, educator, and researcher. She was formerly director of the Center for Studies of Urban Literacy and dean of education at Central State University in Wilberforce, OH. In addition to her journal articles, book chapters, and media appearances, she coedited *Tapping Potential: English and Language Arts for the Black Learner.* Cobb Scott is founder and national director of the African American Read-in Chain, a literacy promotion sponsored by the Black Caucus, the National Council of Teachers of English, and the International Reading Association.

Gail Sherer achieved certification from the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards in early adolescence/English language arts in 1998. Sherer is currently on loan to the Georgia Professional Teaching Standards Commission from Henry County Schools (GA), where she taught for 11 years before accepting the position with the commission. As Georgia's board-certified teacher in residence, she coordinates the national board certification program statewide. She holds a B.S. from Auburn University (AL) and an M.Ed. and Ed.D. from the University of Georgia. In

addition, she serves in an adjunct position with Piedmont College (GA) and teaches in its graduate education program.

Bobbie C. Smothers is assistant professor of elementary education and program coordinator of K-12 leadership at the University of Mississippi. Before joining the faculty at the university, she was principal of Gardenview Elementary School in Memphis, TN. She received her B.S., her M.Ed. in elementary education with an endorsement in administration and supervision, and her Ed.D. in curriculum and instruction from the University of Memphis. She has written several articles and presented papers at conferences in the areas of school leadership and classroom management. She has served as a member of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) Commission in Tennessee and Mississippi and presently serves as an evaluator for the College Commission of SACS.

Gwendolyn Trotter is professor and vice president of institutional effectiveness and technology at Livingstone College in Salisbury, NC. She has diverse experiences as professor and administrator at Loyola University of Chicago, Grambling State University (LA), Florida A&M University, and Central Michigan University. She has served as dean of the College of Education at Butler University (IN). Through these experiences, Trotter has been an active participant in accreditation and teacher education restructuring regionally and nationally. She is also a lead consultant in the development of the Historically Black Colleges and Universities Technical Support Network, a joint project of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and AACTE. Trotter is a member of the NCATE Board of Examiners and serves on the AACTE Board of Directors.

Yiping Wan is dean and professor in the Bagwell College of Education at Kennesaw State University (GA). Before assuming this position, he served as dean and professor in the College of Education at New Jersey City University. He has held other administrative positions such as assistant dean, coordinator, director, interim chair, and chair at various institutions of higher education in both the United States and China. Wan holds an M.Ed. and Ph.D. from the University of Texas at Austin.

Boyce C. Williams is vice president for institutional relations at the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). She also serves as project director of the Historically Black Colleges and Uni-

versities Technical Support Network, which assists teacher education programs at HBCUs. She spearheads the NCATE/National Board for Professional Teaching Standards Partnership for Graduate Programs and serves as liaison between NCATE and its specialized professional association members. She has authored articles on diversity and collaboration in teacher education and was recently guest editor for *Action in Teacher Education.* She is the editor of the recent book *Telling Our Story: Reforming Teacher Education Through Accreditation,* published by NCATE.

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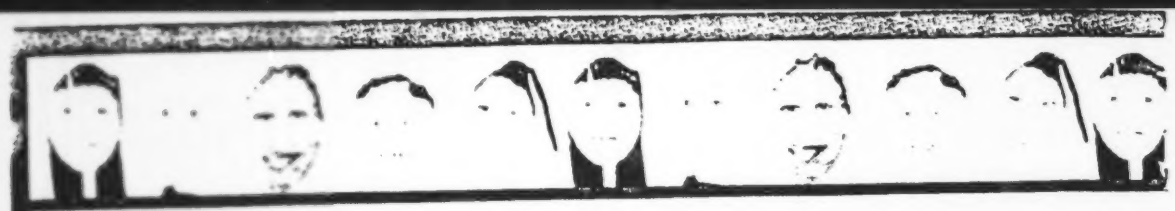

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This volume provides a framework and plan for positive action in which multicultural educational environment and high academic standards are not seen as conflicting and incompatible goals. . . . Accountability with a sense of moral responsibility is required if we are serious about providing the best education for all children regardless of income, ethnicity, or circumstances of birth.

Jacqueline Jordan Irvine
Emory University

This is a timely piece that raises important issues concerning our moral obligations that must accompany accountability. I find it to be an inspiring read and can't wait to share it with my dean and colleagues.

Christine Bennett
Indiana University

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